ONTARIO TEACHERS' MANUALS

HISTORY

AUTHORIZED BY
THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION

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S. J. Lindala

Stories in the back of the book

Valentine

St. Patrick

etc

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HISTORY

AUTHORIZED BY THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION

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HISTORY

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
COURSE OF STUDY

In Form I there is no prescribed Course of Study in History; but, nevertheless, a foundation for its subsequent study should be laid in the story work of this Form, and also of Form II. These stories—to be treated as outlined in the language manuals—will include stories of people and incidents from history and legend that are interesting to the pupils of these Forms. Stories from the Bible, fairy and folk tales, myths and legends, historical tales and stories of heroic deeds—all these, if carefully selected and told with enthusiasm in simple language, will form a suitable introduction to history in the higher Forms, even though they are used in the first instance in the composition classes for reproduction.

As soon as the pupils are able to read, they should be encouraged in every way to read suitable simple stories, which ought to be found in every school library. Nothing will yield so large a return in general knowledge on a small investment of effort as the care taken by the teacher in the choice of supplementary reading books in history and in the careful direction of the pupils' reading.

FORMS I AND II

The following stories are suitable:

1. Bible Stories—Moses in the Bulrushes, his Childhood, the Burning Bush, the Crossing of the Red Sea, the Tables of Stone; Joseph's Boyhood Dreams,

Joseph sold into Egypt, the Famine, the Visits of his Brethren; David and Goliath; Samson; Abraham and Lot; Joshua; David and Jonathan, David and Saul; Ruth and Naomi; Miriam and Moses; Abraham and Isaac; Daniel; Boyhood of Christ; the Shipwreck of St. Paul.

2. Stories of Child Life—The Eskimo Boy, the Japanese Girl, the Indian Boy, the Persian Boy, the Little Black Child, the Saxon Boy, the Greek Boy.
3. Stories of Famous People—Boadicea, Alfred the Great, Harold, Drake, Cabot, Columbus, Cartier, Brock, Florence Nightingale, Laura Secord.
4. Stories of Inventors—Watt, Stephenson, Bell, Edison, Marconi.
5. Stories for Special Days—Christmas—the Birth of Christ, Arbor Day, St. Valentine's Day, Dominion Day.
6. Stories of Pioneer Life and of Local History—Children, even at this stage, are easily interested in stories of pioneer life, of where our forefathers lived before coming here, the hardships they faced in coming, what the country was like then, how they cleared the land, their way of life, their pleasures, their modes of travel, and similar details.

FORM III

In addition to the Details as given in the 1926 Course of Study, issued by the Department of Education, some topics in elementary civics may be dealt with, based on the co-operation in community life—the building of a house, the postman or the rural mail carrier, the policeman, trustees and schools; in fact, any aspect of civic government that comes within the experience of the pupil.

Abundance of supplementary reading in this subject should be provided in the library, and the pupils should be encouraged to read it.

FORM IV

Junior Grade

The leading events in Canadian history up to 1763
The leading events in British history up to 1603
Great events in current history
The elements of the civil government of Ontario
The duties of citizenship
Supplementary reading of British and Canadian history story-books within the capacity of the pupils

Senior Grade

The leading events of British history since 1603
The leading events of Canadian history since 1763
Great events in current history
The elements of the civil government of Canada
The duties of citizenship
Supplementary reading of British and Canadian history story-books within the capacity of the pupils

Suggestions for lessons on government: Election of municipal councils; taxes, necessity for taxes, how levied; election of members of Dominion Parliament and of Ontario Legislature, powers of Parliament; courts of law.

FORM V

The history of Canada
Current history
The elements of municipal, provincial, and federal governments
The duties of citizenship
Supplementary reading

HISTORY

CHAPTER I

WHY WE TEACH HISTORY

THERE are many reasons for studying history, which vary according to the age and purpose of the student. In our public schools, with children of more or less immature power of generalizing, we wish to teach the important facts of the development of the Empire and of Canada, so that these future citizens may know how we have come to what we are and have to-day. So many people are inclined to take for granted the social, political, and other conditions in which we live now, and do not give credit as they should to the pioneers who made these things possible.

We remember gratefully the Unknown Soldier, whose tomb will always remind us of the debt we owe those who gave their lives in defence of world liberty. We should remember gratefully, also, the unknown makers of our country, both in Canada and in the Old Land. As they have worked and suffered that we might have a greater life and higher standard of civilization, so should we work and plan that those who will follow us may profit.

> To-morrow yet would reap to-day
> As we bear blossom of the dead.

A further reason for teaching history is that the pupils may know the development of our institutions, the conditions of their growth, what hindered them, and what promoted them. Just as every thing an individual does

is controlled by the thoughts and acts of his past life, so the development of our national life is influenced by the deeds and aspirations of our forefathers.

That a knowledge of history is useful for citizenship and statesmanship is shown by the fact that our best citizens and our leading statesmen are faithful students of the past. Our future citizens should be patriots and lovers of their country, but patriotism is not to be conceived as a mere emotion, without a solid foundation. It is an idea as well as an emotion, for it is difficult to be really enthusiastic about a thing of which we are ignorant.

Moreover, there is much to be proud of in our record. Canada has shown the world an example in many things —in our idea of Confederation; in our hundred years of peace with our neighbour, during which all our disagreements have been settled by peaceable means; in our development of hydro-electric power; in our production of new kinds of wheat to increase the food supply of the world—of these and other things we may be justly proud.

We teach history, also, to inculcate certain attitudes towards what is going on to-day; for example, patience in the development of new ideas. When we know that our present liberties and advantages were not secured in a day, that the struggle against the Divine Right of Kings continued for many years, that the Industrial Revolution covered a half century and that it is influencing us strongly yet, that it took a thousand years for British Parliamentary Government to become what it is to-day, we have learned not to expect too much in a few short years of the development of the "Parliament of Man" through the League of Nations at Geneva.

It is also not a difficult matter to get pupils to see that standards of life and conduct are ever changing, that things considered lightly a century ago are now frowned upon—slavery, treatment of the insane and the criminal, gambling, drunkenness, and immorality in high places. Unemployment insurance and old age pensions—improbable dreams a few years ago—are now accepted facts in Britain. It is refreshing, also, to note that the changes in standards of conduct are, on the whole, in the direction of finer things.

To a person of culture, the study of history is a source of constant pleasure; both for the increase in knowledge it brings, and for the pleasure of trying to get at the truth, of comparing differing accounts of happenings, and of selecting that account that satisfies most a sense of truth and fair play.

Many of these things, no doubt, the younger pupils miss; they are interested most in the concrete facts of history, and, by themselves, will not get the meaning of those facts. It is the function of the teacher to supply the interpretation of facts and their application to present-day affairs. It is also the function of the teacher to build up a taste for history, so that, by the pleasure it gives, history may help to fill up wisely the leisure part of life. These considerations, of course, lay a responsibility on the teachers. May they realize it to the full!

THE TEACHER OF HISTORY

Although it is good to have a sound method of teaching, it is very important, also, that a teacher should have the right attitude towards a subject and an adequate knowledge of it. An enthusiastic lover of history, for example, will infect his pupils with his own interest in

it, so that they will be likely to continue reading it in after life.

Such a teacher will know his subject, too. This does not mean that he will have an expert knowledge of the whole subject, but he will know the history to be taught thoroughly enough to be able to teach it orally, without referring constantly to text-book or notes. (It does not seem fair that the pupils should be expected to learn what the teacher does not know.) To do this properly, the teacher is advised to study at least one book in addition to the authorized text-book. This is necessary in order to be able to clothe the skeleton of facts with the flesh and blood of interesting personal details that make the figures in history real, living, human beings. The teacher who does this will increase his own interest in history.

He should also have a broad enough knowledge of history to help the pupils to *interpret* history. Knowledge of facts is not knowledge of history; one needs to make plain to the pupils certain principles, ideals, or tendencies in the multitude of historical facts.

As intimated elsewhere, a teacher needs to know the pupils in his class—their experience, their interests; without this knowledge he will not be able to link their experience with that of the actors in the drama of history by timely suggestions or questions.

To present history by the oral method, as recommended in this Manual, it is not necessary that the teacher should have any special gift for narration; any one who is really interested in the story to be told can tell it well enough to hold the attention of the class. Mere fluency is not the chief requisite; the pupils must sense the teacher's interest and his command of the

subject. Only the facts and the details that count should be told; the teacher needs to know what to omit as well as what to narrate.

For every lesson there should be a well thought out plan, with topics arranged according to cause and effect. This will help the teacher and will also aid the pupils to gain a clear and logical conspectus of history. The teacher will remember that he must not allow the realities of history to be smothered by a multitude of facts; that no mastery of facts by forced memorizing will atone for a lack in the pupils of intelligent interest in the subject. When all is said, it remains true in this, as in any other subject, that the teacher is the chief factor in successful teaching—not knowledge merely, nor method, but a well balanced mixture of knowledge, method, and interest.

CHAPTER II

METHODS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Forms I and II

In Forms I and II the pupils are accustomed to the oral reproduction of stories told by the teacher. In these should be included many historical stories, such as Bible stories and stories of child life in other times and in other lands.

The children in Forms I and II are usually said to be in the story stage of history study, although they also increase their *information* and do some *reflecting*. What we hope to do for them by telling the simple stories of history is as follows:

1. To create and foster a liking for historical study.

2. To acquaint the pupils with some of the important historical persons.

Children are more interested in people than in institutions, or laws, or even events; and if we can give them a knowledge of some of the striking incidents in the lives of important people in history, we may expect that they will be more interested in the later study of this subject, because they will frequently meet with these familiar names. The emphasis in this stage is, therefore, on biography.

3. To help the development of the "historical sense."

The "historical sense" includes the notion of time, the notion of social units, and, according to some, the notion of cause and effect. This "time" sense in history includes the ability to distinguish between past and present, to be able to transport oneself into the past, and to judge

things by the standards of that time, not by modern standards. The notion of time comes to some people early, to others later in life; and the most direct means for bringing it out is vivid story-telling.

The notion of social units is also of slow growth and must spring from the child's conception of the social units he knows—himself as individual, the home, the school, the club, the church, the community. Later will come the Province, the Dominion, the British Commonwealth (nation), the League of Nations (humanity).

Two points about these units of society may be noted: (1) To be a good member of a larger unit, one must qualify as a good member of a smaller one; that is, an individual with vicious ideals of life can hardly become a good member of a family, etc. (2) There is no conflict among these units—one may be a member of all at once; a good patriot and a good citizen of the world, or, as it is sometimes put, a good nationalist and a good internationalist.

The notion of cause and effect does not belong so closely to this stage of the study of history as the other notions; it is surprising, however, how soon it makes its appearance in the child's conceptions of history, in his desire to know the "why" of things.

> I keep six honest serving men,
> (They taught me all I know).
> Their names are What and Why and When
> And How and Where and Who.
>
> —Kipling

The oral presentation of a story or the description of an event requires a certain degree of skill on the part of a teacher—skill in story-telling, in grasping the important parts of the story or description, in explaining the story in a way that will make it real to the pupils, in preparing

pictures and sketches to illustrate the different parts, and in questioning so that the minds of the pupils will be active as well as receptive. The care and the time necessary to secure this skill will be well repaid by the interest aroused in history, by the appreciation of the thoughts thus presented, and by the lasting impressions conveyed. Simple, clear language should be employed, not necessarily small words, but words whose meaning is made clear by the context or illustration.

Pictures provide a starting-point for many historical stories suitable for these Forms. It is advisable to have a picture on view at least a day before the story of it is told. Questioning will reveal how much the class observe by themselves. It will be found that pupils rarely observe all the important facts of a picture without some guidance from the teacher. Next, some of the story may be interpreted from the picture itself; most of it, however, will have to be narrated by the teacher. For example, in the lesson on Moses, the picture of the basket in the bulrushes should be used as a point of departure.

The story should be told in language that the pupils can understand. Teachers often use words and phrases that they have found in text-books, but which the children do not know. A few more words may be used, if explained and written on the black-board.

Suitable visual aids should be used with these stories to make them more vivid and also to ensure the correct mental pictures of the things referred to in the story. To a pupil of to-day a ship is very different from the ships of Columbus and Nelson; hence the need for pictures of the old-time ships.

Sand table illustration is very effective in certain stories, such as that of Madeline de Verchères, etc. To lessen the amount of time needed for the construction

of the details used on the sand table, many of the objects may be made by the class in previous construction and paper-cutting or paper-folding lessons.

If a sand table is not available, a black-board sketch will help, especially if coloured chalk is used, and the sketch (or part of it) is made in the presence of the pupils. Many teachers hesitate to make sketches like this, because they are not good at drawing; but they will discover that children are more interested in seeing even a poor sketch grow on the board, than in looking at a perfect sketch that they have not seen made. Many teachers who are poor artists testify to this.

These stories make the characters of history far more interesting than any text-book can possibly do. Stories like that of Madeline de Verchères give the children a much more vivid picture of certain aspects of pioneer life in Canada than can be obtained in any condensed narrative. Most text-books omit the interesting personal detail; it is for the teacher to supply it.

In these, as in all reproduction stories, the characters should be made as individual as possible. When telling of child life in other lands or in other times, the teacher should make the stories personal. He should not tell, for example, how Japanese children live and play and go to school; but, in preparing the lesson, he should weave all the facts to be told about a little Japanese child named Hari San, who goes to school, plays certain games, dresses in a certain way, and lives in a queer house. If the story is about Eskimo child life, let it be all about a little boy named Itchuk.

Stories cannot be told in the same way to all classes. How to adapt them in language, imagery, etc., to classes of different ages and from different environments, depends on the teacher's knowledge of children of various

ages—something which cannot be taught, but must be absorbed. It would be well for teachers, whether in training or afterwards, to study children more, to get an idea of their point of view, their reactions, and the extent of their experiences. As one boy has put it, "teachers should have a course in 'boyology'" —'girlology', too.

Forms III and IV

Lessons in Forms III and IV usually fall into the sub-divisions which are taken up in the following paragraphs.

I. Preparation:

Pupils should be made ready for a lesson chiefly in two ways:

1. A desire to know the new thing should be aroused. This will make a class receptive, and attention will then be more easily held throughout the lesson. This may be accomplished by stirring the curiosity of the pupils—a curiosity which will be satisfied by the new story or idea.

Curiosity may start from a picture, the story of which they will wish to know; an incident of to-day may call for an explanation drawn from history; or a problem may be suggested for which a solution is sought in the following lesson. The instinctive love for stories is all that is needed in the earlier grades.

2. In addition to this emotional preparation, there is usually needed, also, a certain intellectual equipment to enable the pupils to understand the new knowledge or idea. The question for the teacher in planning a lesson is—Has the class sufficient knowledge to interpret the new lesson? New, unfamiliar ideas or knowledge can enter the mind only through ideas already familiar.

The teacher must, therefore, recall the necessary facts for ground work, or see that they are given—sometimes even by a previous lesson in geography, history, or literature, largely as preparatory to a certain topic in history.

II. Problem:

It is well to have a clear understanding of what is the aim of the lesson—whether just a good story coming, or a problem that faced some nation or individual of the past, or a statement about present conditions that needs to be explained.

III. Presentation:

The progress of the lesson from this point will, of course, depend largely on the aim referred to in Step II. But, on the whole, there will be two main lines of teaching to follow; namely, straight narration, or narration interspersed with problems for which the pupils may suggest possible solutions. The latter is the chief fact illustrated by the lesson on Cartier's First Voyage. The class should know the ambition of Cartier—to find a waterway to India through America. At every step of the journey Cartier would have to ask himself a question that every pioneer must ask—"Where next?"

"What next?" The pupils will readily try to put themselves in Cartier's place and suggest a probable answer. If the suggestion is not sound, objection may be raised by another pupil or by a question from the teacher. In this way the class may be said to teach themselves the history lesson. There are some parts, however, in every lesson that must be supplied to the class by the teacher or a text-book.

The advantage of making problems a prominent part of a history lesson is that the pupils are thereby made

partners in the lesson; they have a definite share in the working out of the idea, and all their mental powers are used in the progress of the lesson—knowledge, imagination, originality, caution, etc.

One fact in teaching that teachers often forget is that it is hard work for an adult to listen carefully for a half hour or more to the most eloquent speaker; even the eloquence palls. It may be readily imagined how much greater hardship it is for public school children to listen to straight narrative for a succession of lessons. The best preventive is to get the children into the lesson as partners as much and in as many ways possible—mental and physical. This is done in history through thinking out problems, through constructing illustrative material—drawing, modelling, paper-cutting, or folding, and through reproducing the story as narrative or as drama.

It is understood, of course, that the "oral" method, whether by narration or by problems, needs the judicious support of all sorts of visual or other aids, as described in Chapter II. Pictures and maps are the two visual aids most frequently used in history teaching. Of maps, the outline map, drawn quickly on the black-board, even though roughly done, is easily the most suitable for history. Pictures should be placed before the pupils long enough for them to become fairly familiar with them, and their attention should be directed to certain features of the picture that might otherwise escape their notice. Other aids are mentioned in Chapter II and throughout the type lessons.

One rather important point about the oral method is that the teacher, in preparing the lesson, should not follow exactly, in language or in matter, the text that the class will read after the lesson. This is in order that

there may be enough freshness in the text to hold the interest of the class, for interest depends on a happy combination of the old and the new, the familiar and the strange.

It is important, also, that the teacher should be able to carry on a lesson without constantly referring to the text-book—a few headings should be all that is necessary. In fact, to the class the teacher *is* the text-book for the time being, adding to the matter of the text-book details and illustrative matter sufficient to make the lesson more real and vivid. This thorough acquaintance with the subject-matter by the teacher must be recognized as imperative, by reason of the fact that one cannot always forecast the questions to be asked, but must let them be suggested by the answers the pupils have given. This important point is exemplified in the conversation lesson on the Intercolonial Railway—the pupil's answer practically dictates the next question.

In these two Forms it is helpful to have a black-board outline which grows to keep pace with the development of the sub-topics. The headings may be the work of the teacher or may be suggested by the class under the teacher's guidance and supervision. Such an outline, if properly organized and written on the black-board, helps to relate the sub-topics to each other and to impress them better for later recall. It may be kept in the pupils' note-books for subsequent study and review, especially if they have had a share in making it.

IV. Application or Expression:

When the topic has been sufficiently developed, there should usually be some form of application or of expression—more frequently the latter. The expression

often is some form of reproduction based on the black-board outline; or it may be by some map work or sketching.

The pupils may be asked to compare the black-board outline with their school text, which they will read after the oral lesson. If the library contains a suitable book, they may read the account given by another author and note the differences in the details. An historical novel may be read, to emphasize by the interest of the story the larger facts of the lesson. A reading, for example, of Kingsley's *Westward Ho!* after a class lesson on the Armada would impress certain aspects of the contest as to make it almost impossible to forget them.

REVIEWS

As has been already stated, the story stage is useful chiefly for the purpose of arousing interest and developing the historical sense; no review is necessary other than the oral, and, in Form II, sometimes the written reproduction of the stories. The oral reproduction can be obtained in Form I by using the stories as topics in language lessons.

In the information stage, where we are concerned more with the acquiring of facts, and in the reflective stage, where we wish to relate facts to each other according to cause and effect, reviews are necessary.

During the lesson a summary is placed on the black-board by the teacher or pupils, as indicated in the preceding pages. It is used as a guide in oral reproduction and may also be copied in the note-books and used for reference when preparing for review lessons.

Special review lessons should be taken when a series of lessons on one topic, or on a series of connected topics, has been finished. At the close of each lesson, the facts

learned are fixed more firmly in the mind by the usual drill; but there must be further organization of the several lessons by a proper review, so that history will not be a number of unconnected events, but will be seen as an orderly development. This may be accomplished:

1. By questioning the class from a point of view different from that taken in the first lessons
2. By oral or written expansion of a topical outline
3. By illustrations with maps, charts, or drawings
4. By tracing the sequence of events backwards
5. By submitting some new situation that will recall the old knowledge in a different way.

It must be remembered that it is not a mere repetition that we seek, but a *re-view* of the facts, a new view that will prove the power of the pupils to use the knowledge they have gained. Thus the lesson on the Road to Cathay, in Chapter IV, may be considered a review of the chief explorers of North America.

Sometimes a fact familiar to the pupils may be traced back to its cause. For example, why are there more large cities now than there were a hundred years ago? The answer to this is found largely in the facts of the Industrial Revolution, which brought in the factory system and encouraged the great development in transportation, both of which brought about larger centres of population.

Another example is the change in constituencies in Canada following a new census. Why is it needed, and how is it done? These questions will require a review or calling up of the basis of provincial representation in the Federal Parliament, when it was settled, etc.—a

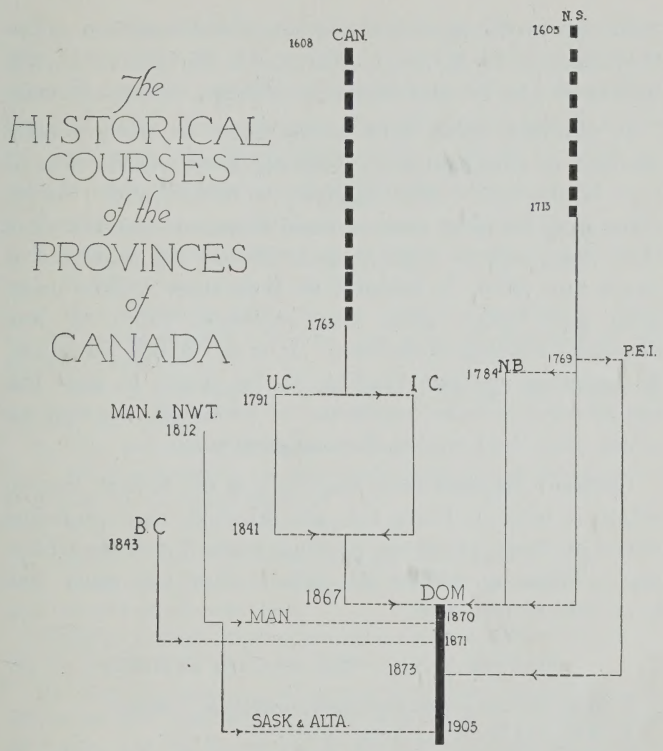
partial review of Confederation, requiring the selection of the pertinent facts from all those learned about this subject.

In drill lessons in History, there are certain outstanding facts and dates in Canadian, British, or World history that should be thoroughly impressed. For this purpose, a time chart can be constructed on the blackboard, and drill used as much as is necessary. For example, a time chart of the expansion of the Dominion will show the following:

Growth of the Dominion of Canada

Date	Events
1713	By the Treaty of Utrecht France gave Acadia (Nova Scotia) to Britain.
1759 1763	Canada becomes British by the Treaty of Paris.
1773	Prince Edward Island is separated from Nova Scotia.
1784	New Brunswick becomes a separate Province, following the coming of United Empire Loyalists.
1791	Upper and Lower Canada become separate Provinces.
1840	Upper and Lower Canada join in a legislative union.
1867	Confederation of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Upper and Lower Canada (Ontario and Quebec) brought about.
1870	Province of Manitoba formed.
1871	British Columbia joins Confederation.
1873	Prince Edward Island joins Confederation.
1905	Saskatchewan and Alberta formed into Provinces.

Similar charts may be used to fix other important events and dates which it is thought advisable to emphasize.



This chart is reprinted from J. P. Taylor's Cardinal Facts of Canadian History and has been brought down to date. It is very effective if done in different colours.

STUDY LESSONS

Two results are desired from the teaching of history:

1. That the pupils form a taste for it.

2. That they may be able to use books, so as to continue reading when school days are over.

The first of these will, with most pupils, be attained through oral teaching and the use of the other means

indicated in the specimen lessons. For the second, some training can be given, in Form III, in the use of the text-book, to be continued, of course, in later Forms.

If children have been encouraged to do a goodly amount of supplementary reading, they will be able to read books within their capacity to understand. Something may be done now to train them to organize what they read, and to observe more closely the sequence of cause and effect in history, so that there will be more solid gain than from the ordinary, more or less desultory reading of children. It is advisable, therefore, in assigning certain reading to be done, to give the pupils some definite questions, or problems, answers to which may be found in the assigned text.

Certain Chapters from the *Story of the British People,* which is used in Form III, are selected, and questions based on them are given as suggestions for other Chapters. These questions are asked after the story has been told in the class.

CHAPTER XXVIII—THE PILGRIM FATHERS

1. What sort of people first tried to settle in Virginia?
2. Why was the first attempt a failure?
3. What differences can you find between the first settlers at Jamestown and those at Plymouth?
4. Would you like to have been one of these early settlers? Why?

CHAPTER XXXIII—THE KING ENJOYS HIS OWN AGAIN

1. Why were the people of England so glad to have a king again?
2. How was Charles II different from Cromwell?
3. Tell something about the two great disasters that came to London in Charles II's reign.
4. Why did they cause so much loss?
5. Why do we not have such things to-day?
6. What were some of the later happenings that made people not so glad to have Charles as they were at first?

For a Form IV class, the study lesson may take the form of a set of examination questions, to be answered after the lesson and with the aid of any books they may have at hand. For example, the story of Columbus may be followed by these questions, certain groups of which might be used as study lessons.

1. What was the idea of Columbus about the shape of the earth?
2. How did his idea differ from the idea common at that time?
3. Which of these ideas do we hold to-day?
4. Was Columbus wrong in any part of his theory? (The teacher might suggest that the class find out his idea of the *size* of the earth.)
5. What general desire of the traders of his day was Columbus attempting to satisfy?
6. What difficulties did he have to meet?
7. What attempts to get help did he make before he succeeded in getting the necessary support?
8. What sort of equipment did he have?
(Number and kind of ships, how many sailors, and of what sort)
9. What difficulties did he face after he set out on his voyage, and how did he get over them?
(Mishaps to ships, superstitions of the sailors, devices for pacifying the men, etc.)
10. After the discovery of the new land, what part of America did he see first, what sort of people were there, what did he think they were, how was he received by them; what did he do before he left for Spain?
11. Try to discover whether Columbus ever found out his mistake in thinking he had reached India?
12. What was his reception on his return to Spain?
13. How was he treated by the Spaniards afterwards?
14. What sort of man must he have been to accomplish what he did?

Occasionally, after a certain part of the course has been covered, a topic may be assigned for study that will necessitate the selection of certain facts from that section of history and the organization of them into a

unit. For example, the topic—Relations between England and Scotland between 1066 and 1603—may be given for study after the general history between these dates has been studied.

Other suggestions for study may be found under the heading Seat Work.

SEAT WORK

One of the chief problems for teachers, in rural schools especially, is the providing of seat work. Too often there is little variation in the sort of seat work given—"Go to your seats and write out the lesson," or, "Write out the answers to these questions"—said questions merely covering the facts of the lesson just taken.

The following suggestions may afford more interesting seat work:

1. Maps:

(1) The class may be asked to make an outline map and show on it the main facts of the lesson just learned; for example, the war of 1812-14; the capture of Quebec; the explorations of Champlain or La Salle; the expansion of the Hudson's Bay Company; with names of places and dates to show the progress made.

(2) An outline map may be coloured to show the progress in settlement, or the territory held in Canada by the English or the French at a certain date.

2. Diagrams:

These might show, for example, government under the Feudal System, or illustrate the Clergy Reserves.

3. Charts:

Pictures and charts may be used to bring out certain relationships, political, genealogical, commercial, etc.

Charts would help in the understanding of the expansion of Canada, or of the growth and final overthrow of the Divine Right of Kings. (See page 21)

4. Debates:

The class may prepare points for a debate on Charles I and Cromwell, Champlain and Frontenac, etc.

5. Letters:

The pupils may pretend to be, say, pioneers in Ontario, writing letters to friends in the old land.

6. Drawings:

The pupils may draw a picture to show their conception of a certain incident or scene described in the text-book.

The pupils may copy pictures from a book; for example, a sailing vessel of Cartier's or Nelson's time, a castle with moat and drawbridge, some old utensil or tool, etc.

7. Paragraph Study:

A definite question or problem may be given, to be answered from a clearly indicated paragraph or chapter.

8. Supplementary Reading:

This is an inexhaustible supply of seat work if books are available, and one of the most valuable ways of giving the intimate, personal details that make history live, and that are not found in the usual text-books. For example, after the class has studied the settlement of Ontario, let them read books like Mrs. Traill's *Lost in the Backwoods*, a story of the adventures of some children; after the story of the Armada, they should read *Westward Ho!* by Kingsley—a book that will give a picture of the British sailors and explorers of the Elizabethan era, which will not soon fade. There are

scores of such historical novels—their use is limited only by the size of the school library or public library.

10. In Forms IV and V, after a good assignment to give the setting, and suitable problems to accompany the assignment, the pupils may work up the next day's lesson for themselves—perhaps they may even, with the teacher's help, make a topical outline, after some experience in this kind of work.

11. History Matches:

Some teachers have used history as material for a match between chosen sides, as used to be done so frequently in spelling. This makes a good drill. A period or chapter is chosen, after having been taught, and questions based on it are given to the pupils for study. The answers may be written or given as an oral exercise.

TESTING FOR RESULTS

It is very natural for teachers to wish to know, in some measure at least, with what success a subject is being taught. In some subjects direct testing is very easy; in others, including history, it is not easy to find tests that will give us just the results we want. A pupil's interest in history is shown usually by his choice of supplementary reading; it may be destroyed by too many formal written tests on badly selected questions.

Many objections have been urged against written examinations in history; namely, pupils waste time on unimportant points; they guess at questions likely to be asked; they depend too much on memory; they come, therefore, to dislike the whole subject. It has been said that many adults who are fond of history and read it a good deal would fail in an ordinary written entrance examination, because their interest is not in getting facts

in detail, but rather in noticing broad movements, in tracing a certain influence through history, in getting at the bigger things.

Is it possible to have tests without harmful results? In the first place, we need a type of question that will require a certain knowledge of historical facts and, at the same time, demand exercise of the thinking powers—shown in organizing, comparing, and interpreting those facts.

In the opinion of many, not more than one-fourth to one-third of an examination should be a test of memory; the rest of it should appeal to other mental powers. The difficulty of finding questions that will not be too complex increases, of course, with the youth of the pupils; hence, probably, the tendency to ask questions that call merely for facts.

The following suggestions have been made for tests to be given throughout the term, not merely as a final examination.

1. After a topic has been taken, let the class interpret a picture connected with it that was not used in the lesson.

2. After supervised practice in the analysis of a paragraph or chapter, assign the class a chapter from which to make a topical analysis.

3. Give questions the answer to which can be shown on a map by colouring or by dates and names of explorers, etc.; for example, the extension of the Hudson Bay Territory through its explorers.

4. Give questions or make statements that will require selection and organization of facts to be found in the text-books, which the class may use during the test; for example,

We sailed wherever ship could sail;
We founded many a mighty state.
—*Hands All Round*—Tennyson

Collect all the facts from your text-book as evidence on these two points.

5. Propose a problem in history which the pupils may use their text-books to solve. For example, what were the earliest places settled, and what were the chief centres in each province from which settlement spread?

6. A day or two before the test announce a topic—one that will require the study of a fairly wide field. The class, after a chance to study it, may be required to write it up without a book or notes, as if preparing for a speech. For example, compare the value to Canada of two leaders; of water and rail transportation, etc.

7. A passage from a source book or other text-book may be examined by the class for a certain purpose. For example, what do you learn from the letter of Mary, Queen of Scots to Elizabeth about their relations? (Many source extracts are found in Keatinge & Fraser's *History of England for Schools.*)

8. The following are examples of questions of the sort more commonly found on examination papers which, however, are not merely memory work, but require, in some degree, application or interpretation of historical facts:

1. Why were the French unable to hold Canada?
2. Why were so few of Britain's wars fought on British soil? Mention one war that was fought on British soil; give the reason.
3. What connection was there between the Seven Years' War and the American Revolution?
4. What were some of the important changes in England brought about by the Norman Conquest?
5. State in your own words the principal idea in the following passage: (Give quotation.)

6. Why did slavery not exist in Canada?

7. Tell some story you have read outside a text-book about the hardships of early pioneer life. Name the book in which you read it.

8. Give examples from your own experience of direct and indirect taxation.

9. Explain why the Intercolonial Railway was built where it was.

10. Why do we celebrate July 1st? May 24th? Nov. 11th? Empire Day?

11. What is meant by "party government?" When did it begin in England?

CHAPTER III

MAKING HISTORY REAL

THE teacher to-day is still faced with the problem of making a subject like history sufficiently interesting to arouse in his pupils a liking rather than a distaste for it. This Chapter suggests a number of aids, which will tend, if used judiciously and at the same time effectively, to vitalize the teaching of the subject.

PICTURES

The first of these aids is pictures. We are living to-day in a picture age—the day of the illustrated lecture, of the motion picture, of the picture and comic supplements, and of the profusely illustrated book and magazine. It is only natural, therefore, that pictures should be used in the school-room. Pictures for school use include post cards, magazine and newspaper prints, photogravures, photographs, cartoons, sketches, motion pictures, and lantern slides.

Pictures should be selected to suit the grade. Junior grade pupils are interested in children, in action stories, in stories that excite their wonder. They will be interested in studying such pictures as "Alfred Reading to His Mother," or "The Boyhood of Raleigh," or "Watt and the Tea-kettle."

Primary grade pictures should show individuals or animals in action. They should illustrate one definite act which the teacher may enlarge on in his narration of it. If possible, pictures for these grades should be in colour and tell a complete story. An interesting book

for these grades is published by Thomas Nelson and Sons, entitled *The Nursery History of England*, by Elizabeth O'Neill. It contains a complete account of English history in story. One page contains two coloured pictures which tell a story. On the opposite page the same stories are told in words. This is the plan adopted by the author throughout the book. A great many of these stories would be interesting reading for pupils while at their seats.

In the senior grades pictures have a more varied use. First, they are used to stimulate the pupil's interest in some topic and thereby cause him to seek additional information from a book. See the study of "Ancient British Life" in Chapter IV.

Sometimes a study of a portrait might lead pupils to give more attention to the man's deeds. In a study of William Lyon Mackenzie's portrait, the original of which hangs near the Legislative Chamber in the Ontario Parliament Buildings, the fiery eye, the tightly-set jaw, the firm grip of the document of grievances, all suggest the impulsive nature and the determination of the man which found vent first in the columns of the *Colonial Advocate*, and later in armed rebellion.

Sometimes pictures are used to illustrate some abstract fact or description that could be impressed otherwise only with difficulty. A picture of Stephenson's first locomotive or of the costumes worn during the Elizabethan age are many times more effective than word descriptions of these would be even by the most competent teachers.

A series of pictures might be used to show human progress in certain directions. A very profitable exercise would be to show by picture the progress made in

Ontario in the means of transportation used on land and sea from pioneer days to the present.

A series of pictures might also be used as the basis of review. The pupils might be given different pictures and be required to write accounts of the events which they illustrate.

Cartoons will often interest some pupils in history who could not be interested otherwise. We know how intensely absorbed boys and girls become in the humorous situations which the comic supplement of the daily paper contains. Cartoons are nothing more than humorous presentations of dry matter-of-fact events. Many a young student owes his interest in Canadian Political History to a perusal of Bengough's *Caricature History of Canadian Politics*. Cartoons often illustrate graphically current events. Through them the pupils become interested in the events themselves. The pupils might be encouraged to collect cartoons, mount them in an exercise book, and write an interpretation of each.

Each school should possess a series of well-selected pictures for class use in history. These should be organized, filed, and catalogued in much the same way as library books. Generally teachers are sufficiently interested in their own work to make a personal collection; but they should also enlist the support of the school trustees and the pupils in making a permanent collection. It is rather interesting to note how many commercial and financial organizations have been using the historical picture on their annual calendars, and how many magazines and newspapers have been supplying their readers with "historical picture" supplements.

The sources of supply where pictures may be obtained are many. A large list of these is to be found in "Educational Pamphlet," No. 4—1913, issued by the Depart-

ment of Education, Toronto, entitled *Visual Aids in the Teaching of History*. Recently Thomas Nelson & Sons have published a series of Canadian History Pictures.

In the absence of a picture, a sketch on the black-board will prove valuable. Free-hand drawings of wig-wams, or birch-bark canoes, of the simple utensils and furniture of pioneer homes, or of pioneer farm imple-ments would doubtless be a valuable substitute for either the picture or the article itself.

Lantern slides are being used by some schools in place of the small picture. They are more easily studied by the entire class. They are of more practical value even than motion pictures, as the unnatural speed with which the latter represent individuals and vehicles as travelling leaves a false impression. Moreover, the supply of historical motion-picture films is too limited to be used to any extent in our schools. Pupils, however, should be encouraged to see, if possible, suitable historical picture films that may come to the local theatre. The United Church Publishing House, Toronto, has pre-pared a large number of lantern slides that could be used profitably in teaching English and Canadian history.

Maps

The use of maps in the teaching of history needs little comment here. These aids are of three types. There are the modern wall maps, the black-board sketch map, and the relief map.

Wall maps are used chiefly in the history lesson to locate historical places. These maps contain such a mass of confusing detail that they should never be used in lessons on discovery and exploration, where the pupil is required to follow the route taken.

There is still another objection to their use in teaching history. Those available are generally up-to-date, and names of places on them might not correspond with those of a century ago. Prints of old wall maps, if available, might be used as a substitute, inaccurate as many of them are. The pupils' attention, however, could be drawn to these inaccuracies, by having these old maps brought into direct contrast with the modern maps. This, of itself, would form a profitable history lesson. It cannot be denied that these old maps give a touch of reality to the past, a reality that modern maps fail to give. For example, in teaching a lesson on John Graves Simcoe, the teacher might show a print of the first map of Ontario prepared by Simcoe; or in teaching the War of 1812-15, he might use pictures of rare prints such as are to be found in *The Chronicles of Canada.*

Black-board sketch maps and relief maps are intended to be graphic illustrations of historical facts. They are used as aids in teaching such topics as Discovery and Exploration, Boundary Line Disputes, Treaty Settlements, and Wars.

In the drawing of black-board maps the use of coloured crayon is very effective. In tracing the routes of Cartier's three voyages, different coloured crayons may be used in indicating each. Or in taking up the Maine Boundary Line Dispute, different coloured crayons could be used to show the claims of both Canada and the United States, and also to show the final settlement.

If the physical features of the country have had some bearing on the historical event, as did those of Quebec in the Battle of the Plains of Abraham, possibly a relief map would be a much better aid to the teacher. Such a map might be constructed by the pupils on the sand-table.

A diagrammatic map is frequently used as a substitute for a relief map. For instance, a diagrammatic map of the Battle of Bannockburn would not only show the actual geographic location of the battle, but would illustrate the position of Stirling Castle, Gillies Hill, the marsh, the pits, and the cavalry and infantry of both armies, as also the road to Falkirk. *Lessons in English History*, by Carter, Oxford University Press, contains many of these maps. This book would be of great service to the young teacher.

Sketch maps may also be used to show the growth from one period to another.

A series might be constructed to show the political growth of Canada from 1535 to 1912. If the pupils undertake this series, they should be provided with the text-book references which will give them the facts necessary to enable them to construct each map.

Sketch maps also enable the pupils to follow more intelligently the movements of armies and navies in past wars. Here the map acts as a sort of checker-board. With the sketch map before them, on which are located the various armies and navies, two pupils might assume the role of American and Canadian generals in the War of 1812-15. Then, just as in a game of checkers, the various moves might be made by each, a reason being given for the move. Both the text-book and the teacher would act as checks on the moves made. In this way, the pupils see the reason why certain battles were fought, and learn these, not as a disconnected tabulated list, but as a connected interdependent group. The Campaign of 1813 particularly lends itself to such treatment.

During the Great War of 1914-18 many people in Canada followed the activities of the armies on the Western Front daily by map, anticipating where the

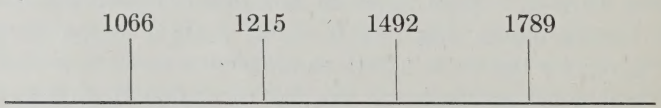
Allies might make the most advantageous moves, and checking these by reports from the daily press.

Since the teacher uses the sketch map very frequently, he is in danger of becoming satisfied with careless, inaccurate work. To avoid this disadvantage, many teachers spend much time in making sketches on large sheets of paper. These they preserve from year to year. But sketches of this kind are not, however, quite so effective as those which grow as the lesson proceeds.

Charts

An historical chart is a pictorial representation of historical facts. It is chiefly valuable in review, although it might be built gradually, as the pupils cover for the first time a certain period in history. It represents graphically the relationship of events over a small or an extensive period of time.

The simplest chart is the *line of time.* It consists of a long horizontal line, along which the dates of various events are arranged in chronological order with the aid of a short vertical line, the principal events being distinguished from the subordinate by the height of the vertical line. Sometimes these events are distinguished by different colours of chalk.



In selecting the important dates for his chart, the teacher must ask himself why they are of prime importance. To answer this question, he must know what makes an event important. Such a chart trains the pupil to distinguish principal events from subordinate, and affords a simple means of impressing the outstanding events.

Sometimes slight variations of the line of time are used. Duncan's *The Story of the Canadian People* suggests a chart which, in addition to including the name of the event, distinguishes principal from subordinate events by heavier type. *The Highroads of History* (*Book II*) contains a time chart for junior pupils which has a list of suitable stories arranged in perspective and by centuries.

The *Pictorial Chart* is another interesting type. *England's Story*, by H. E. Marshall, has one of the simplest of this type. It illustrates the entire field of English history. It is divided longitudinally into three divisions —Periods, Years, Chief Events—and crosswise into the various periods of English history—as Roman, Saxon, Plantagenet, etc. Each period has a different colour. Each period occupies that fraction of the chart found by dividing the length of time over which it extends by the length of time which the whole chart illustrates.

Then there is the *Flag Chart*, which illustrates the development of the Union Jack.

But the real *Pictorial Chart* contains picture illustrations. Such a chart can be seen in a series of books published by Blackie and Son, entitled *Britain and Her Neighbours*. It is divided into two divisions—one allotted to English history, the other to World history. Each division is subdivided into whole, half, or quarter centuries. Each subdivision contains the names of important events, important characters, and important places, written in black or red ink.

Lastly, there are *Genealogical Charts*, which seek to show in a vivid and impressive way the claims of sovereigns to the throne by heredity. These are particularly useful when the claim is remote, as in the case of James I.

Diagrams

Closely allied to charts are diagrams. They are graphic illustrations of abstract facts and descriptions. When Lloyd George visited Canada a few years ago, he spoke of Canadian Patriotism to a vast multitude assembled at Ottawa. The substance of this part of his speech ran as follows:

"Your patriotism is concentric. You have a loyalty which you owe to your own home town. It is the best town in the world. This loyalty concerns a very narrow circle of friends and acquaintances. Then there is a loyalty you owe to the province in which you live. You would rather dwell there than in any other. Then there is a loyalty which you owe to Canada. You are Canadians first. This extends from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Then there is the loyalty you owe to the British Empire. It includes every part of her vast domains. But above all, there is a loyalty which you owe to humanity. It embraces the whole world."

These sentiments are abstract, but could be presented graphically to senior pupils by the use of a series of concentric circles.

Diagrams are frequently used to present statistics graphically. Statistics come in the field of Civics. On 1st April, 1925, the Canadian National Railways issued a diagram to show "How each gross income dollar was spent during 1924." Such diagrams are self-explanatory. This is the style of diagram that the municipality uses when it wishes to show the tax-payer where the taxes go.

Diagrams of a court-room, showing the position of the various officials, and of the Dominion House of Commons and the Provincial Legislature, showing the seating plan of the various members, and indirectly the positions of the Government and of the Opposition members, and of the Prime Minister and his Cabinet, as well as that of the Speaker, aid much in the teaching of government to senior pupils.

Documents

Documents include letters, speeches, proclamations, treaties, deeds, and Acts of Parliament. The use made of any of these must depend largely on the lesson being taught and on the grading of the pupil. Some lessons will not admit of the effective use of any of them. For others, in which certain documents might be an aid, it may be difficult or impossible to obtain these.

Letters and speeches, particularly of the outstanding historical characters of the past, have the effect of changing them from so many dead men to living human beings. They possess the human appeal, the persuasive arguments, and the oratorical fire which the school text, because of its limitations, must omit. No pupil can read Macdonald's speech in defence of his bargain with Sir Hugh Allan, with its flights of oratory, or Laurier's condemnation of the Government that permitted the execution of Louis Riel, with its clear convincing arguments, and not feel, though he may not agree with either, that both men and events take on a touch of reality for him that, hitherto, they have lacked, and in addition, give him a view-point that most school histories fail to give.

There is a valuable substitute for the use of original letters and speeches. The pupils, with the historical facts of their text as a guide, may impersonate important historical characters. Pupils, then, acting in the dual capacity of Lieutenant-Governor and Head of the Army, write the personal appeal that Brock made to the Canadian people and the militia as war was declared in 1812. Or, using the arguments which they think Macdonald may have used in urging a confederation of the provinces in 1866, or even those which Howe used against it, two pupils might have a political debate.

The life of the pioneer settlers of this country might also be made very real to the pupils, by showing them the copy of a deed of land drawn up when Ontario was Upper Canada, or by allowing them to examine a reprint of the first Canadian newspaper. A few years ago the *Quebec Chronicle*, founded in 1847, which had absorbed the *Quebec Gazette*, founded in 1764, issued an anniversary number which included a facsimile of the first issue of both papers. Within the last year there appeared in an Ontario daily paper a copy of a "sale of goods" of 1849, from which the pupil might learn more regarding pioneer life more effectively and in a briefer time than he could from any account in a school history.

In teaching pupils the abstract machinery of elections, teachers should seek to make it concrete by the use of such documents as election writs, election proclamations, nomination papers, voters' lists, ballots, bill-board advertisements, personal cards and letters of candidates, political platforms and speeches. Some of these can be obtained from the daily press, others from the clerk of the municipality. Sometimes source books can be procured, which give prints of documents used in past elections which are not unlike those of to-day.

Supplementary Reading

One of the purposes of teaching in our schools an appreciation of the best literature and of the great movements of history, is that the individual may have a sufficient background to enable him to enjoy reading and reflection during the leisure hours of his life. The reason that many people do not find pleasure in the choicest literature and in historical and biographical books is that they have not really learned how to get beyond the merely mechanical difficulties of reading,

so as to grasp the force or the beauty of the language. They have not really found out how to read, and, consequently, they do not find any enjoyment in books.

The greatest opportunity of helping the pupils, and, eventually, the people, lies open to the teacher. There are many periods during which the pupil at his seat is doing little or nothing after his assigned task is finished, or he is doing some mechanical work given to keep him busy, and so out of mischief. These are the periods during which the thoughtful teacher could lay the foundation for a lifelong delight in reading. When a pupil has finished his assigned seat work based on the lesson taught, the teacher should make it easy for him to select books freely from the library, and should also recommend him to read certain books. Very soon the pupil will develop a habit of reading and will enjoy it. The good effects will show themselves in school in more expressive reading in the reading class, and in the readier grasp of the details of an arithmetic problem.

For the benefit of the teacher and to aid him in the task of building up a library of good books, the Department of Education has issued a Pamphlet—*A Graded List of Supplementary Reading*, and a special list of historical books, also graded, has been placed in the Appendix of this Manual.

School Excursions

There is no better way of learning or teaching history than for the teacher and the class to visit the spot where it was made or is being made. In the majority of cases this method is impossible. As a substitute, the teacher should make it a point to visit places of historical interest and thereby vitalize history for himself. Of late years historical societies and municipalities, as well as the

various governments of Canada, have spent much time and money in placing monuments on historic sites and in having historical pictures painted. All these can be made of much use in the teaching of history.

There are historic Quebec, the Niagara district, the various battle-fields, Indian Reserves, museums with their relics of pioneer and other days, and old historic buildings, all of which offer special inducements to the teacher of history. Pupils should also be encouraged to make trips to such spots and to report when opportunity is given.

Both teachers and pupils may find it advantageous to witness the proceedings of our Houses of Parliament or our Municipal Councils, and by so doing become acquainted with the abstract machinery of government.

Dramatization

"Learn by doing" has become almost a commonplace. But it is still the chief argument for dramatization in history. The pupils impersonate historical characters and events, as well as show the machinery of government in action. It is the play element that appeals and acts as a motive, inducing pupils to learn their parts. Many children who have found a study of King John and the Magna Charta dry, uninteresting work, revel in a little play where they impersonate the king and the barons, and carry on dialogue by means of which all the injustices which John perpetrated on his people are recounted. Abstract truths are more clearly understood sometimes by such dramatization.

The effect produced when dramatization is used as an aid has no doubt led to the publication of such books as Chambers's *Dramatic History Readers*, and McDougall's *Little Dramas of History*. The historical characters in

these books are more life-like because they are speaking for themselves.

Problems

In the teaching of history problems are used for much the same reason as dramatization. They demand for their solution the exercise of mental activity.

Problems are of several types. There is the simple problem question that demands of the pupil a little independent thinking. Where would the Loyalists that came to Upper Canada be most likely to settle? is a problem of this type.

Then there is the problem that requires a greater amount of independent thought and some research. Why did the French lose Quebec in 1759? is one of this type. Such a problem has been named by some a project problem, because of the amount of research it requires before it can be solved.

The problem that forms the basis of the project is of still another class. How can rural school pupils beautify the school and its surroundings? and What can they contribute towards the Fire Prevention movement or the movement for Better Health? are types of this kind of problem. They are "social problems" requiring the co-operation of all in their solution, and become as real to the pupil as the problem that has confronted some maker of history.

History problems are not unlike mathematical problems. Generally something is given, to find something else. Even for the simple problem given as to the settlement of the Loyalists, the pupil must know something of the physical features of Upper Canada before he can answer the question. In solving the larger problem, a

great deal of that interesting knowledge may be found out by the research of the pupil.

It is very essential that this preliminary knowledge or historical setting be correct, else the solution of the problem may lose its significance. Take an illustration. The problem might be Why did the British Government pass the Constitutional Act of 1791? The reason given sometimes is simply the defects of the Quebec Act. But there is little relationship between the Acts. Again, dissatisfaction on the part of the Loyalists towards the Quebec Act is all the preliminary knowledge some teachers require. But this dissatisfaction is not the reason the British Parliament passed the Constitutional Act, though it may serve as an explanation of why it *repealed* the Quebec Act.

Greater preparation is necessary. This will require a knowledge of the facts that the French people and the American Colonies both broke away from the monarchic system of government, and, as a result, there was a fear lest Canada should do the same, if it should come under the influence of the republican institutions of the United States. To counteract any such influence, the British Government decided to give the Canadians British institutions. The Constitutional Act provided for five of these.

CHAPTER IV

TYPE LESSONS

Moses and the Burning Bush

FORMS I AND II

Teacher's Aim:

To arouse an interest in stories of men and women of historical importance.

Preparation of the Class:

As the pupils have some knowledge of Moses, the teacher may question concerning him as a baby in the bulrushes, his adoption by the Princess, his killing of the Egyptian, and the reason for his flight into Midian.

Presentation:

1. The teacher should then narrate, in clear simple language, the story of Moses in Midian, emphasizing these particulars: Moses at the well, his talk with God, his excuses, God's proof of power to help, and Moses' decision to do God's will.

2. During the narration, constant reference is made to pictures or sketches, and an occasional question may be asked, to ascertain if the pupils are understanding the language used.

Application or Expression:

1. Form I—The pupils may reproduce parts of the story, guided by questions from the teacher and aided by pictures or sketches.

2. An exercise in sight reading may also be given later. The teacher may prepare cards containing sections

of the story, and these, when read in class, reproduce the whole story.

1. Form II—Questions may elicit topic phrases to be used in written reproduction in a language lesson. These topic phrases may be written on the black-board at the side of the room.

2. This class may be asked to read the story from some book in the library.

NOTE—To make the story real to the pupils, the teacher should use pictures illustrating the scenes referred to. If such can not be obtained, sketches should be made. The teacher should be thoroughly familiar with the story as narrated in the Bible, and should also read some versions specially prepared for children.

MADELINE DE VERCHÈRES

FORM II

Preparation of Material:

For this story, a sand-table picture is very helpful. Arrange the sand-table before the lesson. On it should be shown the river, the block-house inside the stockade, the open gate, four or five of the stakes of the stockade lying down, the field around with a few men reaping grain, and some trees beyond the fields to represent the forest where the Indians were hiding.

In order to lessen the amount of detail for the teacher, and to let the children feel that they have a part in the story that follows, the class may be asked, in a previous paper-cutting or construction lesson, to cut out and make as many as possible of the figures and objects needed for the sand-table scene.

If there is no sand-table in the school, a black-board sketch will help. This may be drawn before the lesson, or, preferably, as the story is told. Coloured chalk will be used for the river, the harvest fields, and the forests.

Some teachers hesitate to make such sketches, because they are not artists; but they will find that children are much more interested in seeing even an inferior picture developed before their eyes than in seeing a perfect picture ready made.

The teacher should also study the story, so as to be able to tell it in language that the pupils can understand. A knowledge of children of this age, of their usual experiences, and of their vocabulary, is a necessary condition for success in the primary grades. Teachers often use words and phrases, borrowed unconsciously from text-books, that the children do not understand.

The accompanying story of Madeline de Verchères will be found suitable.

LESSON PLAN

Step I—Preparation:

If the pupils are very young, the sand-table picture may be treated like an ordinary picture, before the story is told. The pupils may be asked to observe the various parts and objects in the picture—the stockade, block-house, etc.—so that they may be quite ready to understand these terms when used in the story. With an older class some teachers prefer simply to point to the objects as the story is told, without any special explanation.

For this story, and, in fact, for most stories, little is needed to make the class receptive. Usually the promise of a story, especially one about children, is sufficient to secure attention; holding the attention depends largely on whether the story chosen has an appeal to children of a certain age, and on the way the teacher makes new ideas or new language familiar.

Since practically all children are interested in stories about Indians, this story has a double appeal to them.

Step II—Problem:

The children's preliminary interest or curiosity being thus aroused, the teacher proceeds to tell of the difficult and dangerous position in which Madeline found herself. This will require the telling of the first three paragraphs of the story as given here.

A long time ago, about two hundred years, when your grandfathers' grandfathers were living, a little French girl lived on the banks of the St. Lawrence below Montreal with her father, mother, and two younger brothers. This little girl was called Madeline de Verchères. One autumn when she was only fourteen years old, her father and mother went down the river to Quebec for a visit, and left the three children at home with some settlers and two soldiers.

They did not think there was any danger from the Indians, their enemies, because they had not seen any of them all summer. They all had felt so safe that they had allowed some of the tall posts or stockade to remain lying where they had fallen; and the gate was usually left open all day long.

One afternoon, soon after her parents had gone, Madeline took a walk down to the river, where she loved to go. While she was standing beside it, everything seemed very quiet. Suddenly she heard a gun, and a bullet went past her head. She turned round and saw about forty or fifty Indians running toward the house. She ran to the gate, with bullets whistling round her; and when she was near it, an Indian almost caught her. She got inside, however, and closed and barred the gate. With her two

little brothers she lifted and propped up the stakes of the fence that had fallen down.

(One or more of the pupils may do this on the sand-table.)

The children will find here Madeline's problem, and may make it their own by being asked to suggest what she would do. Even if they cannot forecast it, they will be keenly interested in knowing what Madeline did and what the result was.

Step III—Presentation:

The remainder of the story will be told, and the teacher will point out each place or object as mentioned.

Then she went round the whole place to see if everything was all right. She found the soldiers down in the room where the powder for the guns was kept. One of them was holding a lighted fuse, which was a slow-burning match or stick for firing the old-fashioned guns. Madeline said to him:

"What are you going to do with that fuse?"

"I want to set fire to the powder," he replied, "and blow up the fort."

"You miserable coward! Begone!"

The frightened soldiers were ashamed and did as she ordered. They were sent into the house to protect the women and children there.

Madeline then gave each of her little brothers and an old man of eighty a gun, and took one herself. They stood at the four corners of the stockade, and every little while one of them would call out, "All's well," so that the Indians would think there were many soldiers inside. They did think so, because those inside also fired a gun every few minutes to deceive them.

Little Madeline looked after everything better than most girls fourteen years old would. The Indians stayed there for a whole week, and Madeline had very little time for sleeping or eating.

At the end of the week, on the eighth day, just before dark, she was sitting on a chair with her head on the table, fast asleep, because she was so tired. She seemed to hear sounds like men marching and talking. She jumped up and ran to the lookout place. She saw a crowd of men outside.

"Who are you?" she cried out.

"We are French soldiers to help you. Let us in."

When they came in and found that it was a little girl who had kept the place safe, they could hardly believe it. The captain of the soldiers thought she was a very brave girl, and told her that no one could have done better. I wonder what her father and mother thought of her when they came home and found everything safe because of little Madeline?

Step IV—Application:

For expression, the children may answer a series of questions that will serve to fix in their minds the events in order.

Then one or more may come to the sand-table and tell the whole story, using the sand-table as the teacher did. This they will do with great delight.

A simple dramatization may be had a day or so later.

Cartier's First Voyage

FORM III

General or Teacher's Aim:

To interest the pupils in the activities of the early

explorers of America (particularly of Canada), through a knowledge of Cartier's voyages.

Preparation:

The class has heard the story of Columbus and his object—to find a new route to the East, to India, China, and Japan—by going West. Briefly recall this, and also the voyages of other explorers, such as the Cabots. Use a map while doing this.

Problem:

The wealth of the eastern countries was regarded as fabulous. The wealth of the new continent was unknown, and thus America would be regarded as an obstacle in the way of reaching the East. How would Cartier, using the knowledge gained from the other explorers, try to overcome this?

Presentation:

The oral story of *Cartier's First Voyage* follows, in language understood by the class, and with sufficient detail to give *reality* to the narrative. The teacher should be able to tell the story without reference to a text-book. An outline map of Newfoundland and the Gulf of St. Lawrence on the black-board is to be used, on which is traced, as the story proceeds, the course of the voyage. A picture of the ships used by Cartier should be shown, so that the class will not think of modern steamships, the only kind most of them know. A picture of Cartier also will help to prevent "Cartier" being a mere word or meaningless symbol.

As the story develops, a series of problems is presented to the class—problems that Cartier had to solve. If the pupils remember his object—to find a water-way to the West, they will be able to see for themselves the course he would take.

Names of places reached on the voyage and the dates of arrival should be written on the black-board, either on the outline map or separately. These may be used for reproduction either immediately after the lesson, or a day or two afterwards. The dates are merely to show the time occupied by Cartier in feeling his way, and are not intended to be memorized. The only date to be learned is the year 1534.

A black-board summary should be placed on the board as the lesson proceeds.

Application or Expression:

Following the lesson the class may be asked to read in their text-book, or in any other book in the library, the account given there of the voyage.

The facts noted on the outline map may be erased, and the pupils may be called on to write them in again, as the various steps of the voyage are related.

Later in the course, the main facts of Cartier's voyages may be woven into a review lesson on all the explorers of North America, particularly British North America. (See the lesson on *The Road to Cathay*.)

United Empire Loyalists

FORM III

I. Review the facts of the American Revolution that reveal the situation of the loyalist population in the revolting states:

1. Very brief reference to the causes of the conflict and the progress of the war.

2. Division among the colonists on the question of rebellion.

3. The resulting bitterness of feeling that usually accompanies civil war.

II. When the war was over, and the loyalists were defeated, what treatment did they receive from the victors, and what course did the loyalists follow?

III. Describe to the class the cruelties inflicted on the loyalists, and the attitude towards them of even the leaders of the revolutionists. Describe, also, the attitude of the loyalists toward the revolutionists, and the ways in which they retaliated when they could. As each point is made clear, it may, on the suggestion of the pupils, be put into a heading for a black-board summary.

Of course, when the war ended, such bitter feeling could have only one of two results—either extinction of the loyalists or their emigration.

Several problems may be placed before the class at this point: What was the feeling in Britain about the loyalists? What help was offered them? How much could they carry away with them? Where could they go, so as to be on British territory? How could they get to their destination?

Then, by the aid of an outline map, the pupils may be shown where the principal centres of loyalist population were in the United States; from the map most of the routes they followed can be discovered by the class, if they are asked to recall what the face of the country was, and how people in those days were forced to travel. They travelled by water when possible; otherwise by covered wagon over difficult routes.

The pupils can discover, also, with a modicum of assistance from the teacher, the districts in Canada selected for settlement by those who came here. The teacher's chief contribution will be the story of the

grants by the British Government, and of the hardships the newcomers faced, both on the road and in beginning their new settlements.

Details not given in the *Public School History of Canada* may be found in Smith's *Pioneers of Old Ontario:* Herrington's *Pioneer Life Among the Loyalists in Upper Canada,* and Wallace's volume on the United Empire Loyalists, in *The Chronicles of Canada.*

Some idea should be given of how many loyalists came to Canada, where they settled in the largest numbers, the subsequent founding of provinces inhabited mainly by them, the sort of people they were to act as they did and to endure what they came through. These points need to be emphasized, so as to pave the way for a study of their subsequent influence on the destiny of Canada.

IV. Then may come the usual reproduction by the class based on the black-board outline; or the pupils may be asked to show all the facts possible on an outline map prepared as seat work.

A Study of an Historical Picture

FORM III

Step I:

The teacher displays the picture, "Ancient British Life," asking the pupils to study it silently.

They are next asked to suggest a title.

Several of the best titles suggested, as "The Hunter," "Bringing Home the Game," etc., are written on the black-board.

Step II:

The teacher and the pupils decide to study the picture in detail together, in order to select the best title.

Step III: A Study of the Picture:

The teacher directs the study of the picture by questioning the pupils thus:

How many people are there in this picture?

Describe the man who seems to be the centre of the picture.

What kind of clothing does he wear? What has he been doing?

To what place has he brought his game?

Where is the home? What will it be like inside?

What is the dress of the children made of?

What can you learn from the bow carried by the boy?

What other weapons do you find in the picture?

What is the other man carrying?

Deal with religion as typified by the Druid, the oak, the mistletoe, and the burial-place.

Much will have to be told about the Druid, the war-chariot, and the tomb.

The Interpretation of the Picture:

Discussion of the time which this picture illustrates. By question and answer, the pupils are led to decide that this picture illustrates the time when men dressed in skins, lived on the flesh of wild animals, dwelt in caves, and fought with spears and axes.

The teacher tells them that it was about two thousand years ago. The teacher also tells them that the picture is about the people that lived in Britain at that time.

The teacher then suggests that the pupils study with him the life of these ancient Britons, beginning with what they see of it in the picture. Part of this the pupils can easily obtain themselves, such as the dress. They will see from the picture that these people were dressed in skins, although some wore woven cloth.

From the picture, also, the pupils learn that the only means of water transportation they had was a small canoe-shaped boat. But the teacher will tell them that this boat is called a coracle, and that it is made of withes over which the skin of an animal is stretched. They were a war-like people fighting with spears, axes, and bows and arrows.

But the teacher will have to tell them that they also had war chariots, which had a scythe fixed to the axle of the wheel, in which they rode to battle, cutting their

way as they went, and from which they would eventually leap and engage the enemy on foot; that the reason they stained their bodies with curious marks, some of which resemble animals, was to make themselves more hideous in battle, and thus strike terror in their foes; that some of the warriors were buried, and to mark the spot a dolmen, or cromlech, was erected similar to what is seen in the picture near the man carrying the coracle.

A black-board summary is developed as the study of the ancient life of the Britons proceeds thus:

ANCIENT BRITISH LIFE

1. People: general appearance
2. Dress: skins, textiles
3. Home: cave
4. Transportation: coracle
5. Methods of fighting: spears, axes, war-chariots, shields, bodies stained, and hair long
6. Religion: Druidism — oak and mistletoe sacred, druids or priests
7. Food: flesh of animals, wild-boar

The pupils suggest that the title be "Ancient British Life," giving reasons.

Step IV:

The pupils read the story from one of their Supplementary History Readers.

They compare the life of the Ancient Britons with that of the Indian savage, the Eskimo, the pioneers of Upper Canada, or with the life of the British to-day.

The Capture of Quebec—1759

FORM IV

The Teacher's Preparation:

The teacher should read a more elaborate account of the "Seven Years War" in America than is to be found in the authorized text. *The Tercentenary History of Canada*, by Tracy, contains an interesting and unbiased story of this war. A visit to Quebec and the battle-fields at some convenient time would doubtless add greatly in the teacher's preparation.

Some time before the recitation period, he should display for the pupils' use:

1. A sketch map of the field of the whole war.

2. As many historical pictures as can be obtained, illustrating the outstanding points in the Capture of Quebec, such as "Climbing the Heights," "The Battle on the Plains," "The Death of Wolfe," etc.

I—The Pupils' Preparation:

The pupil recalls, from the concrete material displayed, his former knowledge of the story learned in Form III. From his text-book, he reviews the events of the "Seven Years War" before 1759.

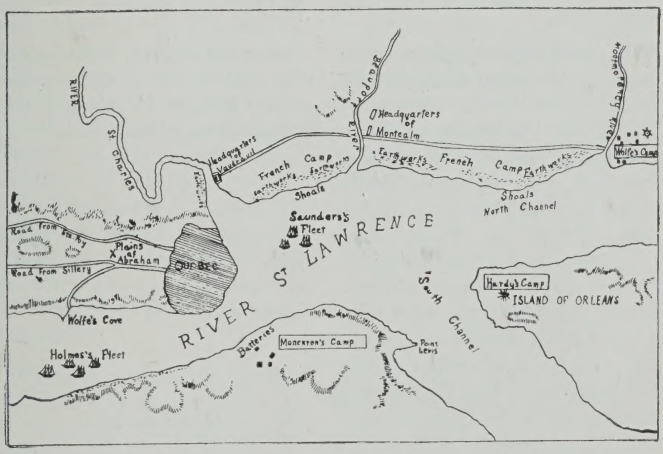
II—The Lesson Problem:

Trace with the aid of the sketch map the course of the War to 1859. (No details necessary)

The pupil, putting himself in Wolfe's place, faces the problem, "How can I take Quebec?"

III—Presentation:

MATTER	METHOD
	Problem Questions
Quebec was situated on an eminence from one hundred to three hundred feet above the level of the St. Lawrence; and there was no visible path close to the city by which this steep and rocky cliff might be climbed.	Tell me one difficulty Wolfe would encounter in his attempt to take Quebec.



Montcalm was a skilful and experienced general who had outgeneralled Abercrombie the year before at Ticonderoga, by inflicting heavy losses on a larger army, through having his men fight concealed behind earthworks.

What did Wolfe think of Montcalm as a general?

It was to be expected that Montcalm would adopt the same plan, two-thirds of his army were

How was it probable Montcalm would defend Quebec?

untrained men, and would fight much better concealed than under fire in the open. Then, too, he had the strongest natural fortress in the world to aid him in this plan of defence.

Demonstration with Map

The armies of Montcalm and Levis were located between the rivers Beauport and Montmorency. Between the rivers Beauport and St. Charles lay Vaudreuil's army.

Let us see what these plans of defence were.

In front of these armies were huge earthworks, while in the mouths of the rivers were mines, and along the whole precipice and in the city were nearly one hundred siege guns. A fourth army patrolled the height from Cap Rouge to Point Aux Trembles, from fifteen to twenty-five miles west of Quebec city. Many small batteries were also located below the cliff in concealment on the north shore of the St. Lawrence. The French had an army at Point Levis, also.

Here the teacher, with the aid of a map, points out the location of the French armies and the nature of their fortifications.

Questioning

Wolfe had control of the St. Lawrence, more abundant supplies, a much larger and superior fleet, a better trained army, with the prospect of help from Amherst should the armies at Niagara and Lake Champlain arrive in time.

What advantages, if any, had Wolfe over his antagonist?

Telling

New France was under dual control. Vaudreuil was Governor, and as such was in control of the army. He was a jealous

The teacher supplements these advantages.

rival of Montcalm. We shall note some of his counter-commands that no doubt aided the British.

He must adopt the plan of trying to draw Montcalm out from his hiding-place, and of then engaging him in the open.

This includes Wolfe's landing at the Island of Orleans, his inability to storm Quebec from that distance, his pitching his camp east of the Montmorency River above the Falls, the evacuation of Point Levis by the French at Vaudreuil's command, Wolfe's seizing Point Levis, landing batteries there, and almost demolishing the city, his fruitless attempts to attack the French in the rear by crossing the Montmorency, and later on the attempt to storm the Beauport shore.

This plan depended on finding a secret path near Quebec, by which Wolfe could lead his army up the Heights.

Wolfe first selected Wolfe's Cove by scouting. His selection was no accident. It was close to Quebec; it led to the Plains of Abraham, a suitable place for an open battle; Vaudreuil had countermanded Montcalm's orders and withdrawn the army defending it, leaving it poorly protected; the guard could be more easily deceived, as the

If Wolfe was to be successful, what plan must he adopt?

Telling

The teacher then tells how Wolfe first attempted to do this, but without success.

Here a picture of Wolfe's Battery, storming the French across the Montmorency might be shown.

Several prints have been circulated of J. D. Kelley's painting of this scene.

Telling

The teacher explains the only plan left to Wolfe, and the preparations he made to execute it. Occasionally the teacher might develop part of it by *problem question and discussion.*

French used it to bring in supplies.

Wolfe planned to deceive the French. Monckton's army, between Cap Rouge and Point Aux Trembles where the French expected the English to land, was particularly active; the fleet under Saunders and the Point Levis batteries turned their guns on the Beauport shore as if preparing for an attack there. Wolfe's plans included also the transportation of his soldiers by night, deceiving the guard, and climbing the Heights.

The story would include the arrangement of both armies on the Plains—Montcalm's attack —the deadly volley—the rout—the death of both generals.

Telling

The pupils might complete the story as they learned it in Form III, the teacher suggesting any necessary details.

A black-board summary should be developed as the lesson proceeds.

THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC

1. Wolfe's problem
2. The obstacles that confronted him
3. Montcalm's plan of defence
4. Wolfe's advantages
5. Wolfe's attacks: Montmorency, Beauport Shore, Plains of Abraham
6. The result

IV—Application:

ASSIGNMENT

1. Read the story in your text.

2. Tell the story of the capture of Quebec as Montcalm or Wolfe might tell it.

3. Show by a map the territory held by the British in America before and after this battle.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Read "Winning of Canada" by Wood in *The Chronicles of Canada*, or any other recommended book on the lesson.

NOTE:—Subsequent lessons: Battle of Ste. Foye Road; the Siege of Montreal; Pontiac's Conspiracy; Peace of Paris.

THE CONFEDERATION OF THE CANADIAN PROVINCES

FORM IV

NOTE:—Several half-hour lessons will be required to cover this topic as outlined below.

Materials:

1. Text-book.

2. A sketch map showing the British provinces about 1860.

3. Pictures relating to Confederation, including "The Fathers of Confederation."

Preparation:

1. The pupils review with the aid of their text-books the American Civil War, the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854-66, and the Government of Canada under the Act of Union. (Omit details in each case.)

This work should be done as seat work, and rapidly covered in class.

2. The teacher then reviews the main causes that led the Provinces to unite.

These include:

(1) The need of adequate defence against foreign invasion.

(2) The need of markets after the United States refused to renew the Reciprocity Treaty.

(3) The need of remedying the state of deadlock in the Parliament of Canada, due to equal representation from both Upper and Lower Canada.

MATTER	METHOD
The American Civil War broke out between the North and the South.	What war broke out in the United States in 1861?
English sympathy, for the most part, was with the South.	Which side did England openly favour?
The *Trent*, an English vessel, took on board two envoys of the South, who were on their way to seek help in the struggle from England and France. A hostile warship of the North stopped the vessel, removed the envoys, and took them prisoners.	Name an incident during the war that brought England and the North to the verge of war.
England demanded the immediate release of the envoys, and an apology, or she would be obliged to declare war.	What action did England take as a result of this incident?
She would attack the British provinces to the north of her.	In the event of war, where would the United States strike at England?
England landed an army of several thousand men at Halifax.	While her demands were being considered, what move did England make to meet a possible attack?
The St. Lawrence River was frozen over, and there was no	What difficulty confronted this army?

way of transporting troops to Upper and Lower Canada except a long, rough march by land.

The British provinces lacked a railway to connect them.

What was needed to meet such a difficulty?

The only way would be for the provinces to unite, and let the government of the united provinces build the railway.

What would be the only feasible way of building and paying for this railway?

The "Fenian Raid" on Canada convinced the provinces that union was necessary to provide adequate protection against foreign invasion.

What event in 1866 seemed to impress further on the provinces that they should unite for the sake of defence?

The other causes might be reviewed similarly.

Problem:

How might these three difficulties be removed?

Presentation:

The pupils present, as a solution, the union of the Provinces.

MATTER	METHOD
1. The French saw that they would be in the minority; that they might lose their language; and that union might result in a gradual break-up of their solidity as a race.	What obstacles stood in the way of Union?
Guarantee the French their rights.	What remedy can you suggest for these objections of the French?
2. They would have a wider market for their produce.	How would union help the Maritime Provinces?
The Union should build a railway to connect them with Upper and Lower Canada.	But how could they get their produce to these Provinces?

3. Each Province should be given annual financial aid by the Union of Provinces.

If the Provinces united, they would have to give up their resources to the Union.

How would they get money to manage their own Provinces?

Conferences:

At Charlottetown—A conference of the Maritime Provinces was being held to consider a union of those Provinces.

How were all these difficulties and obstacles met?

(The teacher tells the pupils.)

Representatives of Upper and Lower Canada were admitted, who suggested a greater union of all the Provinces.

At Quebec—Representatives present from all the Provinces, later called Fathers of Confederation.

Leaders—Brown, Macdonald, Galt, Cartier, Tilley, and Tupper.

Sessions private. Each Province accepted the union idea.

At London, England, Resolutions were presented to the British Government, and accepted.

What were the special Resolutions that were accepted?

1. There should be a Federal Union, that is, a Provincial parliament and a Dominion parliament, with a suitable division of powers; local matters, such as education being left to the Provinces, and such matters as defence, and postal matters being considered Dominion affairs.

2. The Intercolonial Railway was to be built.

3. An annual grant to each Province of eighty cents a head was to be made.

The British Parliament embodied these Resolutions and others in The British North America Act.

Important provisions of the Act:

1. (1) Four provinces—Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick—entered the union to be called Canada.
   (2) Provision was made for the admission of other Provinces.

   Dominion Government:

2. (1) Governor-General appointed by the king for five years.
   (2) Senate appointed by the Governor-General for life, on recommendation of the leader of the House of Commons.
   (3) House of Commons—Members elected for five years, according to population—Quebec to have sixty-five members, and the other Provinces in proportion.
   (4) Powers of government covered all general matters—Trade, Postal service, Defence, Coinage, Immigration, Treaties, etc.

   Provincial Government:

   (1) Lieutenant-Governor appointed Governor-General for five years.
   (2) Legislative Council (only in Quebec and Nova Scotia) appointed for life—similar to the Senate.

How were all these matters settled?

(The teacher will tell the class about the British North America Act, and then discuss with them the probable terms.)

(3) Legislative Assembly—members elected by the people for four years.

Manitoba, etc.

On what terms was each of the other Provinces admitted to the Dominion? (This information should be obtained from the text.)

The Hudson's Bay Company sold its territory to the Dominion.

How did Canada obtain the North-West Territories?

BLACK-BOARD SUMMARY

The Confederation of the Provinces

1. Causes:
   (1) Need of defence
   (2) Markets
   (3) Deadlock in Canadian Parliament
2. Conferences:
   Charlottetown; Quebec; London, England
3. British North America Act:
   (1) Union of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick
   (2) Governments—Dominion, Provincial
   (3) Dominion Government—Governor-General, Senate, House of Commons
   (4) Provincial Government—Lieutenant-Governor, Legislative Council (Quebec, Nova Scotia), Legislative Assembly, Powers
4. Admission of other Provinces—Manitoba, etc.

Application:

1. Draw a sketch map to show the extent of Canada in 1866, 1897, 1912.

2. What is the population of each Province at present? (Consult *Canadian Almanac* or *The Canada Year Book.*)

3. How many representatives should Saskatchewan have in the House of Commons at present? Nova Scotia? Ontario?

The Intercolonial Railway

FORM IV

The following is a shorthand report of a lesson to a Junior Form IV class, and it is presented in the question-and-answer form in order to show how a teacher's questions depend very largely on the pupils' answers to preceding questions. While it is impossible to write a plan which will give the questions and forecast the answers, since many questions will depend on the answers given, nevertheless, it is necessary to prepare many of the most important questions which will deal with the turning points of the lesson. The mere preparation of the questions will aid in clarifying the whole lesson for the teacher.

The teacher needs a plan, of course, to serve as a guide, but he needs still more to have such a mastery of the facts of the lesson as will permit of the elasticity demanded by unexpected turns given to the lesson by the remarks of the pupils.

The lesson was begun by a reference to the provisions in the British North America Act for the building of the railway. The Act provided that "The Canadian Government should build a railway connecting the St. Lawrence with Halifax, to be commenced within six months after the Union." The date of the Union, July 1st, 1867, was written on the black-board.

T.—Did you notice the two places that were to be connected by the road?

P.—They were Halifax and the St. Lawrence River.

T.—Why do you think Halifax was chosen as one terminus?

P.—Because it is near the sea.

T.—Well, Quebec is not far from the sea either.

P.—It is the nearest port for ocean-going steamers.

T.—What happens to the St. Lawrence in very cold weather?

P.—It freezes up.

T.—Yes. It is frozen over for about four months in the winter, and ocean-going vessels cannot use the river then; so Halifax was chosen as a good winter port on the Atlantic. Now, what place on the St. Lawrence would be chosen as the other terminus?

P.—Most likely either Quebec or Montreal.

T.—We can tell better a little later which one was actually chosen. Here is a thing that I want you to think about. Why should they build the railway just to the St. Lawrence? Were there many people living in Upper Canada seventy years ago?

P.—Yes, as many people as there were in Quebec Province.

T.—Really there were about 250,000 more here than in Quebec. How would the people here ship their goods in the winter? How do we send our goods to Europe now in winter?

(Several suggestions were made. Finally it was stated that we could ship by water in summer and by rail in winter.)

T.—You know that there are some rapids on the St. Lawrence before we reach Montreal. How do we manage about them?

P.—By using the canals.

T.—How can we ship by rail?

P.—By using the Canadian National or the Canadian Pacific Railways.

T.—Now, I shall have to tell you something about the canals and the first railway from Upper Canada. There were several canals already built on the St. Lawrence: the Lachine, Cornwall, and others. In fact, we had spent about $1,500,000 on canals before Confederation. The Grand Trunk Railway was running from Sarnia to Quebec city by 1856, just eleven years before Confederation. (Have a pupil trace the line

from Sarnia to Quebec, so that the class may see how much of Upper Canada was served by the Grand Trunk, now the Canadian National Railway.) What place on the St. Lawrence would be taken as the western terminus of the new railway?

P.—Yes, Quebec would be the one.

T.—Why?

P.—Because the people of Upper Canada had ways already of sending their goods as far as Quebec city.

T.—The next point to think about is—How had Canada been shipping her goods across the sea in winter before this?

(Several suggestions were made. "We had to keep everything till the next summer." "We had to use ice-boats.")

(Objections were raised to these methods, to show that they were impossible. Finally one pupil thought that we had sent freight through the United States.)

T.—Well, why did the people not continue doing that, instead of wanting to build a railway of their own?

P.—The United States would likely make them pay for doing it.

T.—Let me explain about that. In 1854, a treaty had been made between Canada and the United States, called the Reciprocity Treaty, by which the two countries exchanged their goods freely. This treaty was ended in 1866; and the people of Canada had to depend more on themselves. Besides, there was a good deal of trouble between Britain and the United States, arising out of the Civil War in the latter country, which had just ended.

(The pupils are told here about the *Trent* and *Alabama* affairs, and the Fenian Raids of 1866.)

The people at that time were afraid that there might be war between the two countries, and, of course, that would bring Canada into the trouble. Do you see now why a railway was needed from Quebec to Halifax?

P.—Because there was danger of war, and because the United States might interfere with Canadian trade.

T.—There were both military and commercial reasons. We have found now why the road was to run from Halifax to Quebec, and why it had to be built at that time. The next thing to find out is—Where it was to be built. If you were a railway

contractor and had to build the road without thinking of anything but getting it done, what route would you be likely to follow?

P.—I think I should take the shortest way.

T.—Where would the road go then?

(Have a pupil place a ruler on the map from Quebec to Halifax.)

Tell where it would run.

P.—Through Quebec Province, the State of Maine, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia.

T.—Why would the people not build it along that line? Don't forget the reasons for building the railway.

P.—They wouldn't go through the State of Maine, because that is in the United States.

T.—What is the next way they might think of?

P.—The next shortest way so as to keep in Canada.

T.—Where would that be? (Pupil comes up and tells from the map.)

P.—From Quebec city through Quebec, along the edge of Maine, into New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

T.—Would they take that way?

P.—No, because it is too near the border of the United States.

T.—Why do you say "too near"?

P.—If there was war, soldiers from the United States might come over and wreck the railway. They might dynamite the bridges or tear up the rails.

T.—As a matter of fact, they did not take that way. What route could be taken to prevent any trouble of that kind?

P.—They would stay as far from the border as possible.

T.—Where would that be? (Pupil comes to the map to find out.)

P.—They would have to follow the St. Lawrence for some distance.

T.—How far?

P.—Right down to the other side of New Brunswick. Then down to Halifax.

T.—Would that be the cheapest line to build?

P.—It would cost more, because it is longer than the others.

T.—It is really 138 miles longer than the next shortest. Which of the reasons we have mentioned would make them want to keep as far from the border as they could?

P.—The military reason.

T.—Which country, Canada or Britain, would be the most interested in the military considerations?

P.—Britain, because Canada depended on her for protection.

T.—Is there any other reason, one connected with the cost? Where would the money come from?

P.—Britain would likely have to supply a good part of it.

T.—Why?

P.—Because there were not very many people here then.

T.—Yes, we have to borrow a great deal of money for such purposes even yet. The British Government was to guarantee the money for the railway, and would want to have something to say as to where it was to be built.

The pupils might now be asked to discover from the map the chief places on the line of railway. Have them written on the board. The teacher may add that, since the Grand Trunk was already built to Rivière du Loup, and since another line ran from Truro to Halifax, there was really needed only a line from Rivière du Loup to Truro, about 500 miles. This line was completed and opened for traffic on July 1st, 1876.

He might also refer to the fact that the fear of war that caused that route to be followed was not realized, that the Intercolonial did good service in bringing the Provinces closer together, and that other railways have since been built on the two rejected routes; namely, the Canadian Pacific Railway and the National Transcontinental. The teacher may tell the pupils that the line was afterwards greatly increased in length, and now forms part of the Canadian National Railways.

The facts of the lesson should then be gone over again, following the black-board outline that has been made as the lesson proceeds.

BLACK-BOARD SUMMARY

1. Provision in the British North America Act for the building of the railway.
2. Reasons for building the railway:
   (1) Military
   (2) Commercial
3. Selection of the route:
   (1) Routes that were possible
   (2) Reasons for the final choice
4. Facts about the railway:
   (1) Principal places on the railway
   (2) Branches of the railway
   (3) Length and cost
5. Value of the railway to the new Dominion.

Application:

The class may be asked afterwards to draw a map showing the route and the chief commercial centres served by the railway.

Magna Charta

FORM IV

(A typical lesson for Senior Fourth class, in which the text-book is to be used and the lesson regarded as a study lesson with the usual periods of assignment, study, and recitation.)

Preparation:

Ask a series of questions, such as:

What differences were noted in the characters of Richard and John?

In what incident did John's cruelty show?

Into what difficulty did his quarrelsome nature lead him?

By means of such questions recall the following facts in the history of the reigns of Richard and John:

1. The personal character of John, and his oppression of the people by taxes and unjust exercise of power.
2. The murder of Arthur, and its effect on the Norman people, and the loss of Normandy.
3. His quarrel with the church over the appointment of an archbishop.
4. The interdict, excommunication, and the effect of John's submission to the barons.
5. The resulting three-party opposition to King John.

The aim of the lesson will be stated in the form of a problem question.

Problem:

In view of these conflicting relations between King John and the church, the barons, and the people, what would be a likely result:

1st answer: John would try to appease the strongest body of the three and unite that body with his.

2nd answer: All three bodies would unite their efforts against the King.

3rd answer: Some leader would demand former English rights and try to gain the support of the barons and people.

Presentation:

1. Study period—

   (1) At your desks read Chapter III, page 75, to find the events that did actually occur.

   (2) In your work-books describe the steps taken in gaining redress by church, barons, and people.

2. Recitation—

By questioning and by reference to the pupils' prepared outlines, the teacher elicits the following facts and summarizes them on the black-board. From his wider reading the teacher will add certain details.

(1) A union of church and barons, headed by Stephen Langton, was formed.

(2) The barons, under arms at Bury St. Edmunds, demanded restoration of the Charter of Liberties of Henry I.

(3) In 1215, in arms, they again made demands which John could not resist, and a council was called at Runnymede.

(4) The Great Charter (Magna Charta) was signed here by John on June 15th, 1215.

It contained many provisions, some vital at that time only, and others vital in the maintenance of the liberties of the British people until the present time.

The most important of the latter ones are:

(1) No tax could be levied without the consent of the Great Council of the Kingdom, in which sat the chief land-owners and clergy.

(2) No one, without lawful trial, might be kept in prison or punished.

(3) Englishmen were to be tried by their peers or equals; that is, by jury.

(4) Justice should not be sold, denied, or delayed to any one.

Application:

Show how each of these provisions is of importance to-day.

Analysis of a Lesson on the Armada

The purpose of this lesson is to show how to construct a topical outline of an important event in history. It is assumed that the teacher will use, in preparing similar lessons, a larger history of Britain than the Public School text-book, in order that the class may be asked, after the lesson is taught, to read in their text-books an account somewhat different in treatment from that of the teacher.

The headings should show the sequence of events and should be concise. The smaller print indicates the facts that the brief headings should recall to the pupils after the lesson. The events preceding the coming of the Armada are suggested here among the causes. These headings may be placed on the black-board as the lesson proceeds; they may be suggested by either teacher or pupils. The actual teaching should be by both narrative and development methods.

For the teacher's use a very interesting and trustworthy book is *A History of the British Nation*, by A. D. Innes, Thomas Nelson & Sons, Toronto.

I. CAUSES

1. *Political.*—(1) Ambition of Philip to rule Europe; chief obstacles were England, France, The Netherlands.

(The opposition of France was overcome by a treaty and by the marriage of Philip and Isabella of France after Elizabeth had refused Philip's offer of marriage. The Netherlands were in full revolt and could not be conquered even by the cruelties of Alva and the destruction of their commerce. England was the chief Protestant power in Europe, and, as such, was the chief opponent of Spain.)

(2) The marriage trouble; Elizabeth's religious policy broke off negotiations of marriage with Philip.

(3) Philip received as a legacy the rights of Mary, Queen of Scots, to the English throne.

2. *Commercial.*—Interference of the English in the New World, to which Spain claimed sole right.

(This includes the English settlements as well as the capture of Spanish treasure ships. Recall stories of Drake, Hawkins, etc.)

3. *Religious.*—Philip was the chief supporter of Roman Catholicism in Europe and wished to impose his religion on England.

(This was the period of compulsion in religious matters.)

II. EVENTS

1. Preparations in Spain and England

(Spain set about preparing a large fleet, to carry soldiers as well as sailors. The best Spanish general was in command at first. His death put an incapable man in command, who was largely responsible for the defeat. The Duke of Parma was to co-operate from the Netherlands with a large army. In England, the small battle fleet was increased by the voluntary contributions of all classes, till it actually outnumbered the Spanish fleet, though the vessels were very much smaller. A comparison of the fleets as they were on the eve of battle should be made.)

2. Difference in the national spirit in the two countries

(The Spanish were on an expedition of conquest; the sailors were ill-trained, and many serving against their will. The English were defending their homes; they forgot their religious and political differences in their patriotism; the sailors were hardy, fearless, and most skilful in handling their ships.)

3. The affair at Cadiz

(Retarded the invasion for a year, gave England more time for preparation, and encouraged hopes of success.)

4. The battle in the Channel

(Armada attacked on the way to Dover, July 28–Aug. 6, 1588; fireships at Calais, Aug. 6; final engagement, Aug. 8-9; a chance for a vivid description by the teacher.)

5. Storm completes the ruin of the Armada.

(Facts to be given as to the losses of the Armada; recall stories of wrecked Spanish vessels on the coasts of Scotland, etc., and recommend class to read some story such as Kingsley's *Westward Ho!*)

III. RESULTS

1. Ruin of Spain and of Philip's ambitions [Connect with I. 1 (1).]

2. Influence on England's patriotism and maritime power

3. Greater religious tolerance in England

4. Marvellous growth of literature in England partly due to this

5. Effect on America. It decided for all time that Spain should not rule the New World, but that the Anglo-Saxons should, with all their ideals of political, social, and religious liberty.

Review Lesson: The Road to Cathay

The aim of the lesson is to show how the desire of certain European nations to find a western route to the rich countries of the East—India, Cathay, and Cipango (India, China, and Japan)—led to the discovery and subsequent exploration of America. It can be used as a review lesson on the exploration of Canada. It will also give the pupil practice in collecting information from various sources, so as to show the development of history along a certain line.

The subject-matter may be divided into as many lessons as the teacher thinks best, and the oral method should be used. All the dates given are not intended to be memorized; they are used to show the historical sequence; only three or four of the most important need be committed to memory by the class at their present stage. The map should be used frequently.

THE LESSON

One of the results of the Crusades was to reveal to the European nations the wealth of the East. Trade between the East and West grew, and Venice became one of the wealthiest and most powerful of the states of Europe.

In 1295 a Venetian traveller named Marco Polo returned from Cathay after an absence of twenty-five years. His stories of the wealth in silks, spices, pearls, etc., of those eastern countries intensified the desire of the West to trade with them. A great commerce soon grew up, carried on principally by the great Italian cities—Venice, Florence, Genoa, Pisa, Milan—and as these cities controlled the Mediterranean, the only route to Asia then known, they had a monopoly of the Eastern trade, and kept for a time the other western nations—Spain, Portugal, France, and England—from sharing in it. These nations, animated by the hope of gain and by the spirit of adventure and exploration, could not long be denied their share.

This spirit was stimulated by the introduction of the mariner's compass, which afforded sailors a safer guide than landmarks and stars; by the invention of gunpowder and the use of cannon, which, through lessening the strength of the mediæval castle, tended to increase the power of the middle classes; and by the invention of printing, which aided greatly in the diffusion of knowledge.

The problem was to find a route by which to trade with India and China.

Place the map of the world before the pupils and inquire how men travel to-day from Great Britain to India. Show that these routes were not feasible then. The route through the Mediterranean to Asia Minor

and thence overland, or through the Red Sea to India, was closed by the Turks, who captured Constantinople in 1453. The Suez Canal was not opened till 1869. The way round the Cape of Good Hope was not discovered till 1497. The western route across the Atlantic and the Pacific was unknown.

Not till the closing years of the fifteenth century were the attempts to solve this problem successful. The discovery of the route to India by Vasco de Gama in 1497 first opened the way to the East, though the still earlier discovery by Columbus was to afford, in later years, a much more complete solution.

Christopher Columbus was a native of Genoa in Italy. An eager student of geography, he became convinced that the earth was a sphere or globe and not a flat surface. He believed that he could reach India and Cathay by sailing west, as well as by going east through the Mediterranean—a route that had been closed since the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453.

"This grand idea, together with his services in carrying it out, he offered first to his motherland of Genoa. But Genoa did not want a new route to the East.

"Then he turned, but in vain, to Portugal. The hopes of Portugal were set upon a passage around the south of Africa. To England and to France Columbus held out his wondrous offer; but these countries were slow and unbelieving. It was to Spain he made his most persistent appeal; and Spain, to his imperishable glory, gave ear." Through the self-denial and devotion of Queen Isabella of Castile he was enabled to put his dream to the test.

A special lesson should be given on the life of Columbus —his efforts, perseverance, courage, failures, successes. The teacher may add at will to the facts given here.

When Columbus landed on the island-fringe of America in 1492, he thought he had found what he had set out to find—the eastern country of India; and he believed it all his life. This idea survived for several generations, partly because of the great wealth of Mexico and Peru. When Europeans were at last convinced that it was not India, they began again to seek a way to the East, and looked on the continent of America merely as an obstacle in their path. To find the road to Cathay was still their chief ambition.

In 1497, John Cabot, under a charter from Henry VII of England, set out to find a way to the East, and landed in North America; in 1498, his son, Sebastian Cabot, explored the coast from Labrador to South Carolina with the same object.

In 1534, on his first voyage, Cartier thought, when he arrived at Gaspé and saw the great river coming from the west, that he had discovered the gateway to the East.

With the same object in view, Champlain, in 1609, explored the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain. In 1613, he listened, only to be deceived, to the story of Vignau about a way to the East up the Ottawa River to a large lake and into another river that would lead to the Western Sea.

Henry Hudson made four voyages in search of a way through or round the continent. On the first, second, and fourth, he tried to go round by a North-west or a North-east passage. On the third voyage, in 1609, he sailed up the Hudson River for 150 miles, only to find his way blocked. A curious fact is that on this voyage he must, at one time, have been only about twenty leagues from Champlain, when the latter was exploring

Lake Champlain on the same errand. (Show this on the map.) On his fourth voyage, in 1610, Hudson discovered the bay that now bears his name; and he must have thought, when he saw that great stretch of water to the West, that he was at last successful. He wintered there. When the ice broke up in the spring, his men mutinied and set him, his young son, and two companions, adrift in a boat, and they were never heard of again. (See *The Story of the British People.*)

The Mississippi was long looked upon as a possible way to the Pacific Ocean. La Salle explored the great lakes and the Ohio, Illinois, and Mississippi Rivers. This last he found to flow into the Gulf of Mexico, instead of west into the Pacific Ocean. His settlement on Montreal Island was called *La Chine* (the French word for China), in allusion to his desire to find the way to that country.

Later, others were led by the same desire to explore that western part of what is now Canada. Vérendrye, in 1731, travelled from Lake Nipigon by way of Rainy Lake, the Winnipeg River, and the Red River, to the junction of the latter with the Assiniboine, where Winnipeg now stands; also up the Saskatchewan River to the Forks. His son, in 1742, explored the Missouri River and came within sight of the Rocky Mountains.

Men of the Hudson's Bay Company and of the North-West Company—Mackenzie, Fraser, Thompson, Simpson, Hearne—amid great hardships and through thrilling adventures continued the work of exploring the waterways of the West to find an opening to the Pacific.

It has remained to the people of Canada to conquer the passes of the Rockies and Selkirks, build great transcontinental railways and steamship lines, and thus afford a direct short route from Europe to Cathay.

What men had striven for during more than four hundred years it has been our lot to accomplish.

Other topics of interest suggested by the lesson may be taken up afterwards; for example, the opening of the Suez Canal and its effect on trade—why it did not restore supremacy to the Italian cities; the opening of the Panama Canal and its probable effect on commerce; the reasons why merchants prefer water routes to land routes, etc.

CHAPTER V

METHODS IN CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

If the pupils have had experience in the Public Schools in the methods suggested in this Manual, they will have an acquaintance with the text-book that will stand them in good stead in the Continuation Schools. The Public School methods will be continued in the Continuation classes, with more stress placed on individual work with the text-book, following the necessary class work.

The following plan may be used:

The teacher outlines to the class the main topics to be discussed in connection with a certain period. Then each topic is taken up in class, the chief points are noted on the board, and some general questions are given to the class for study at their seats. These answers are written by the pupils in their note-books.

Then follows further class discussion to supplement the points noted by the class.

In their note-books the pupils illustrate their ideas by appropriate map work, by charts showing the sequence of events connected with the topic, or by any other form of illustration suitable to the topic.

For example, the lesson may be on the War of 1812-14. The questions given to the class for study after class discussion may be as follows:

1. (1) Explain the situation in Europe and in America that led to the beginning of hostilities in 1812. (2) What was the real desire of the American nation?

(3) Compare the conditions in each country at the commencement of the war.

2. (1) Outline the important events in:
   (*a*) The campaign of 1812
   (*b*) The campaign of 1813
   (*c*) The campaign of 1814.

   (2) Describe the condition of both countries at the close of the war, and the immediate results of peace.

These questions the pupils answer in writing in their note-books, using their history text-books. A map is made showing the events in connection with section (2), the names of the places being noted on the map, with the dates of the events. A chart of the events in the campaigns may be made, in which are noted in parallel columns the date, name of the place, location of the place, the event, and the importance of the event.

Another type of lesson may be given. After a series of lessons is completed, topics may be assigned to the pupils, for which they collect information from any available book—history texts or other books in the library. For example, Hudson's Bay Company; taxation, its purposes; development of transportation in Canada; the peoples of Canada, their native homes, reasons for emigration, places of settlement, their contribution to the progress of the country.

Divine Right of Kings

Aim:

To show the opposition of the growing democratic spirit of the English people to the "Divine Right of Kings."

Preparatory Step:

By questioning recall:

1. The method of choosing and anointing the kings of Israel as described in the Scriptures in connection with Solomon and David; the significance of anointing by the High Priest, and the same ceremony in the coronation of our kings to-day.

2. The selection of early English kings by the people (Witan); for example, Edward the Confessor.

3. The recognition of the right of succession of the Tudor kings, with the ceremony and place of coronation.

Presentation:

By means of questioning and telling, the teacher makes clear:

1. The position of England at the close of Elizabeth's reign, and the resulting attitude on the part of the English people toward the throne. (Respected abroad, contentment at home, with intense loyalty to the Crown, new spirit of liberty and freedom, literary revival)

2. The striking personality of James, and his attitude toward Parliament contrasted with that of Elizabeth.

3. His interpretation of the doctrine of Divine Right:

> "A monarch in the proper sense is created by God and accountable to God only. He is above the law as both its author and the giver of strength thereto."

4. The ensuing struggle in the reign of Charles I, with special mention of the Petition of Right.

5. The Bill of Rights, 1689, and the accession of William III—by consent of the people and the rejection of the doctrine of Divine Right.

Applications:

The questions are given:

1. What consideration was given to the Divine Right doctrine in the coronation of George V?

2. By what authority does our present king retain his sovereignty?

3. What powers does he exercise in the government of the British Empire?

4. What are the powers exercised by our Governor-General as the representative of King George?

CHAPTER VI

CITIZENSHIP

THE whole matter of teaching Civics or Citizenship turns on our idea of what citizenship in a democracy means. Such citizenship is a question of the relation between the individual and society or the community.

A very common attitude to-day in a community is —"Leave me alone to run my own affairs as I like, and you can run public business as you like." This is not good citizenship. This is simply the insistence of the individual on his rights and privileges, and the ignoring of his responsibilities, which is fatal to democracy.

Children need to be taught that citizens have responsibilities as well as rights; and the problem of teaching citizenship is mainly how to inculcate in children the spirit of *service* to the community, to make them realize that there are *others*, that citizenship is, after all, just *living together in a community*. It may be possible to go further, and get them to realize that the best interests of the individual are bound up in and are dependent on the best interests of the community; that man cannot develop fully except in society.

It is a difficult matter to introduce this idea of *service*, of *living together*, into the minds of children, but it must be attempted. The main thing here is to have the teachers realize that this spirit of citizenship is the most important thing to teach, no matter how it is done. A knowledge of the machinery of government is needed also; but this knowledge, with the wrong spirit behind it, is the chief weapon of corrupt politicians.

SOME IDEALS IN CITIZENSHIP

What are some of the ideals of citizenship that children may learn, and how can they be imparted? The following suggestions of such ideals may be useful:

1. That we *owe* service to the community.

Most children, and, in fact, adults also, take for granted the conditions of life as they find them. To whom do we owe these conditions?

The only way to show this is to give them the history of the settlement of Canada, and to make them realize the life of the pioneer. This appeal, if properly made, is very effective with children. It can be carried back to British and world history, as far as the time will permit.

Show the pupils, in the same way, that practically all we have and know and are, we owe to our forefathers; and that, if we wish to pay that debt, the only way is by service to others, now and for the future.

2. That "it is wrong for an individual to do that which, if done by all, would destroy the State."

This is an acid test of conduct. Apply it to such things as the evading of taxation by false returns of income, or to the vice of smuggling. Show pupils of the proper grade why taxes are levied; that the municipality or the country needs a certain amount for running expenses; that there are certain methods of raising these taxes; that, if one man evades payment of his share, some one else must pay more, or the service of the country will suffer. It seems a small matter when only one does it; if everybody were to do it, what would happen to the country?

3. That rights and privileges imply duties and responsibilities.

This overlaps the first point above; but it seems necessary to emphasize constantly that there are certain duties and responsibilities which people forget, while talking loudly of their rights.

One duty particularly is that of voting, faithfully and intelligently. It is a very poor commentary on our citizenship, when, as is usual in municipal or other elections, only fifty per cent of the qualified voters use their franchise. When we read in history of the struggles of our forefathers to gain the right to vote, of the sufferings, and often the loss of life that was the price paid for the ballot, it seems unthinkable that men should neglect their franchise, and sometimes despise it so much that they sell it for a mean bribe.

4. That all should be obedient to the law.

This is not, by any means, a full list of the ideals of citizenship, but if these are given to each generation of pupils, and are remembered by any considerable number of them, there should result a much higher level of public spirit.

In addition to these ideals of citizenship, it is necessary to teach the main facts of the machinery of government —such facts as are found in books like *Canadian Civics*, (Jenkins), *Our Government* (Stevenson), *How Canada is Governed* (Bourinot). It happens too often that the machinery of government is all that is taught in the name of Civics; let us put a better idea of citizenship into the young minds first; then the other will take its proper place. With these two things accomplished, there should be both a better feeling of citizenship and a greater skill in the management of affairs.

WAYS AND MEANS OF TEACHING

1. As co-operation is the essence of good citizenship, it is advisable to show the pupils how dependent we are on one another, and how necessary it is that we should have a kindly feeling for our fellow-citizens.

First, ask the pupils to make a list of the people on whom we are dependent for various things. In building a house, for example, we need the services usually of carpenters, masons, bricklayers, painters, plumbers, electric-light men, paper-hangers, labourers, architects, teamsters, etc.

For the various articles used in building, we need the work of the lumberman, sawyers, railways, lumber merchants, hardware merchants, manufacturers of nails, etc., workmen in factories.

For our clothing, a similar list of people may be made out. Sometimes, a single item may be given to the class, for example, to get the history of a nail, of a suit of clothes, a pair of stockings, a map in the school-room, the bread we eat, etc.

Secondly, to build up a sense of responsibility for our work, the pupils may select cases where other people are dependent on us. If a man is a locomotive engineer, the lives and property on the train are intrusted to his watchfulness and efficiency; a merchant must be reliable; a child, if careless with matches, may cause loss of property or even life; a pupil in school may, by misconduct, prevent other people getting on with their work; a man who is elected to public office must feel that others look to him for the proper handling of the business of the community.

Contrast may be made between the Indian of early Canada and ourselves. The Indian was practically

independent. He or his wife made or procured everything they needed—tepee, clothing, weapons, game, corn, etc., they depended on no one; while we depend on so many. Then contrast the Indian's standard of life, with all his independence, and our standard, based on the co-operation of so many.

2. It is always difficult to inculcate in children principles or ideals of conduct; they dislike anything abstract. We may as well give up the idea of children learning citizenship out of books or by lectures; we must find more concrete ways of teaching it. These are fortunately at hand in the activities found in every school; other devices may be added:

(1) Games and sports in school. In these the children may imbibe the true spirit of sportsmanship, which commands us *to play fair, to play together, to be game.* For citizenship no better spirit than this can be imagined; and it is to be hoped that teachers everywhere will realize that school sports and games and competitions at school fairs may all contribute, if properly handled, to the making of good citizens.

(2) School gardens. A very hard lesson for children to learn is the difference between *mine* and *thine.* They must learn to respect the property of others. One of the by-products of the school garden, more valuable, perhaps, than the direct products, is that children realize that, if they want their own plot respected, they must respect the plots of others. The same attitude may come with their other belongings—books, etc.

(3) Attractive school premises. We want children to learn to respect public property. It is difficult to see how they can come to care for public property that is not worth caring for. A dingy school-room—dirty

walls, dirty floors, no blinds, no flowers, no pictures—will never arouse in children a desire to be careful. The attractive school—both as to building and grounds—can be used by a tactful teacher to change entirely the attitude of children toward public property, so that they will not take flowers from parks or deface trees, etc. Give certain things into the charge of the pupils—one to look after the cloak room, etc.,—not as a task, but as an honour; the response will be very satisfactory.

(4) Societies, fairs, concerts, etc. Throw the responsibility for as much of the running of these things as is possible on the shoulders of the pupils. This sense of responsibility for work done, not for personal gain, but for the credit of the school, is just what is needed in after life in community work. In school competitions, the same spirit of fair play should be developed; no article or produce that is not *honestly* made or grown should be accepted for the competition.

(5) School conduct. If the teacher can make the children realize that misconduct is not a personal matter between teacher and pupil, but an interference with the rights of others and the good of the whole school, there is born in the pupils the proper attitude toward law in the community. Laws or rules in school are shown to be not arbitrary, but for the more efficient working of the school or community. Obedience to the law, in a free country, does not and cannot, depend on force, but on the law-abiding spirit. Citizens obey the law, both because it has their personal approval, and because it is so ordered by their own representatives in Parliament. Disobedience of the law cannot be excused by personal disapproval of the law; that would be anarchy.

It is always a good thing to put the pupils on their honour. Without it there is no training in self-control. Besides, the pupils like it and respond to it. One pupil said recently to a teacher who had put the class on their honour in doing certain work without oversight: "I always did like to be trusted." Any experiment in self-government, or "socialized civics" must be carefully thought out, and the development vigilantly followed.

(6) Other devices. During the Great War, appeals were frequently made to the school children on behalf of certain war work; for example, the knitting of socks, and other work in connection with the Junior Navy League. Objections were raised by many teachers that these interfered with the regular school work. They forgot that in this way the children were learning the fundamental principle of citizenship—*service for others who were themselves serving*—a lesson that no book and no teacher could teach, a lesson that can be learned only by *doing* the thing. "If ye would know my *doctrine, do* my will."

For giving children practical experience in citizenship, it is not necessary to have an elaborate organization of committees, monitors, etc. A good beginning may be made by organizing the school or class as a Junior Red Cross Club, in which there are certain committees on Programme, Health, Room, Good Cheer, etc. These committees may be increased in number as need arises; and in that way anything artificial or forced is avoided. The Public School pupils in Forms III and IV take very kindly to these activities and have some very interesting sessions under the guidance of their own officers. Assistance in the way of directions and literature for organizing such a club may be obtained from the secretary of the Junior Red Cross—410 Sherbourne Street, Toronto.

Elections, with candidates and speeches on important current local events; mock councils or parliaments; mock trials—these are other well-known and useful devices for becoming acquainted with both ideals and the machinery of government.

3. Civics based on history. A very important side of history teaching is the emphasizing of ideals of public conduct as shown in history, especially in the sphere of biography. There are great men and women in history whose lives are worthy examples to the young: Sir John Eliot, Pym, Hampden, who stood for freedom of speech and debate; Gladstone, who helped to right historic wrongs in the East; many eminent Canadians, such as Sir John Macdonald, George Brown, Alexander Mackenzie, Egerton Ryerson, Sir Oliver Mowat, and Sir James Whitney; women such as Florence Nightingale and Elizabeth Fry, Laura Secord and Sarah Maxwell.

Besides these eminent examples, there are in every locality men and women who give unselfishly of their energy and time for the good of the community. Deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice, of which our annals are full, make a tremendous appeal to the young.

4. Civics from Literature. In the Readers there are many fine expressions of citizenship that should be fully discussed. *Vitaï Lampada*—"Play up and play the game"—gives the finest idea of team play and pluck.

The following are selections from the Readers which deal with various phases of citizenship and patriotism.

Fourth Reader:

1. *The Children's Song*—Kipling
2. *The Queen's Jubilee*—Laurier
3. *"Gentlemen, the King!"*—Begbie
   (The flag makes us think of home.)

4. *A Vision of the Future*—Tennyson
   (Prophecy of the League of Nations)
5. *Love Canada*—Ryerson
6. *My Native Land*—Scott
7. *The Unity of Our Empire*—Balfour
8. *England, my England*—Henley

THIRD READER:

1. *The Canadian*—Middleton
2. *The Song of the Bow*—Conan Doyle
3. *A Hymn for Empire Day*—A. C. Benson
4. *In Flanders Fields*—McCrae

SECOND READER:

St. George and the Dragon

There is one question of citizenship on which there needs to be special instruction—that of taxation. One's attitude towards taxation is a good test of citizenship. Many people have an idea that taxation is robbery, and that they are therefore justified in evading the full payment of taxes.

Two reasons may be given for this—taxes are usually paid only once or twice a year, while the services rendered are continuous; and people do not stop to think what they get for their taxes.

To meet the first difficulty, the teacher may take the amount per year for any service and find the daily cost, if the service were paid for as it is rendered. For example, the average cost per Public School pupil in the Province for 1920 was $44.63. Assuming 200 teaching days in the year, the cost is twenty-two cents per day. Surely the education of a child is worth that.

To meet the second difficulty, a discussion on the following lines may be had. This discussion is a summary of one which actually took place.

One day as Dr. Smith was going home, a neighbour called out to him:

"Have you got your tax-bill yet?"

"Yes, just came yesterday."

"Isn't it a shame how the council robs us? I don't see how they can spend all that money. There must be something wrong."

"Oh, I don't know about that. I think the taxes are pretty reasonable."

"I'd like to know how you make that out."

So the doctor took a piece of paper, and put down how much the city was collecting that year in taxes—$4,609,000. The population then was 121,000. That means that the council was asking just a few cents over $38.30 per head, for every man, woman, and child in the city.

"Now," he said, "let us make a list of all the things the city gives us for that."

So they made a list something like this: Streets, sidewalks, street lights, schools (about one-third of the total was spent on schools), hospitals, sewage system, health protection, (including medical health officers and inspectors, nurses, garbage collection, etc.), fire protection, police protection, parks, public libraries, athletic fields in summer, open-air rinks and toboggan slides in winter, and city staffs to look after all these things

"Say, I had no idea that we got all that."

"Now," said the doctor, "if a private company were to offer to supply us with all these things from year to year at a contract price of $38.30 a head, would you, as a business man, take their offer?"

"I certainly should."

"Do you think there is much room here for anything very dishonest in spending our money? There may be some waste, some useless expenditure, but it can't be very great. I think we get good value for our taxes."

"I certainly never thought of it that way before. I believe we just take all these things for granted because we have them every day."

"That's the trouble. If we had to pay for them every time we used them, instead of only two or three times a year, we would soon realize how easily we are getting off. If we want to cut down our taxes, we'll just have to cut off some of the services."

"I don't think there is anything in that list we can do without, and I think the men we elect to run our public business ought to be thanked instead of being found fault with."

This line might be followed up by getting an idea of how much money is spent on running automobiles in a city of that size. Twelve thousand cars, at $300 a year for upkeep, would cost $3,600,000—almost as much for one service as was paid for the long list of services given above. In a rural district, similar calculations may be made for the local municipality.

The teacher may deal in another lesson with the question of how each citizen's tax bill is calculated. This will bring in the matter of assessment, on what it is based, how the rate (so many mills on the dollar) is struck, method of collection, etc.

Some of the pupils should be delegated to attend the annual meeting of the section and report on the procedure followed. They may have a chance to hear public discussions of various questions—union schools, consolidated schools, etc. They can also discover what are the powers of a chairman, how to move or second a motion, make an amendment, etc.

In both urban and rural schools there is not nearly enough use made of the annual reports of the treasurer of the municipality. This report will show how every cent of the money received in taxes has been spent; and people may be surprised at the information given there of the varied services given by a council.

Lessons concerning special bodies of municipal and civil servants may be taken; for example, the duties of the assessor, the tax collector, the policemen, postal employees, and firemen, etc., should be discussed.

A PROJECT IN CITIZENSHIP

NOTE: This project is for a rural public school.

The Project Defined:

A project demands three things.

1. There must be a problem which has arisen in the minds of some of the pupils.

2. There must be mental and physical activity displayed by the pupils in solving this problem.

3. The problem must be solved in its natural setting. It is this last requisite that makes the project a new method.

The Problem:

What can we, as a group of pupils, do to make our school-house and its surroundings more beautiful?

Solution of the Problem:

1. A discussion in class as to what ways the school-house and the grounds may be made more beautiful. A summary of these is placed on the black-board:

The Beautifying of Our School Grounds

(1) The floor, walls, stove, and desks must be kept clean and tidy.

(2) Wastepaper baskets should be provided.

(3) Necessary repairs should be made and the woodwork painted regularly.

(4) The black-boards should be washed daily.

(5) The school should be kept free from flies.

(6) The grounds should be levelled and neat walks made.

(7) Flowers and trees should be planted.

2. The whole school should be organized for the solution of this and similar problems. A president and a

secretary and a number of committees are then chosen, and each pupil should be on one or more of these committees.

3. Means of solving the problem adopted:

(1) Several resolutions are passed by the pupils regarding tidiness of all desks, habits of cleanliness including clean speech, a proper attitude to school property, etc.

(2) Through personal effort and the division of labour, black-boards are kept washed and cleaned, flowers are provided for the windows, flower beds are made and attended to, trees planted, the grounds kept free from waste material, and an anti-fly campaign is begun.

(3) The support of the trustees is obtained. They co-operate in securing an efficient caretaker. They see that the school is cleaned regularly, that the grass is cut, and they attend to all necessary repairs.

(4) An annual entertainment is held, and the proceeds are spent in purchasing pictures.

The influence of such a project on the home and its surroundings will be marked.

THE CANADIAN IDEA IN SCHOOLS: THE FLAG

One of the outstanding duties of the school is to develop a strong spirit of British and Canadian citizenship among the young. In its broader aspects this matter is considered under the head of Citizenship. In this section the part that the flag may play in this regard is taken up.

There is a difference of opinion as to the use of the flag in schools; but it can hardly be said that in the past its use has been overdone. More

than is the practice at present may easily be done without cheapening it as an emblem.

In the first place, even the youngest children may be taught to *recognize* the flag and distinguish it from others—not a very difficult matter.

The older children may be taught to draw and colour it correctly. Directions for this are given below.

They may also be taught the significance of the flag. It is a symbol and an emblem—a symbol of a sovereign nation, an emblem of patriotism. It will receive meaning from the history of our country, of Canada as well as of Britain, from the history of the struggles and sacrifices of our forefathers in securing and maintaining our liberties. Our traditions of liberty, truth, and justice will be linked with the flag and its colours—red, white, and blue.

THE COLOURS OF THE FLAG

What is the blue on our flag, boys?
The waves of the boundless sea,
Where our vessels ride in their tameless pride,
And the feet of the winds are free;
From the sun and smiles of the coral isles
To the ice of the South and North,
With dauntless tread through tempests dread
The guardian ships go forth.

What is the white on our flag, boys?
The honour of our land,
Which burns in our sight like a beacon light
And stands while the hills shall stand;
Yea, dearer than fame is our land's great name,
And we fight, wherever we be,
For the mothers and wives that pray for the lives
Of the brave hearts over the sea.

What is the red on our flag, boys?
The blood of our heroes slain,
On the burning sands in the wild waste lands
And the froth of the purple main;
And it cries to God from the crimsoned sod
And the crest of the waves outrolled,
That He send us men to fight again
As our fathers fought of old.

We'll stand by the dear old flag, boys,
Whatever be said or done,
Though the shots come fast, as we face the blast,
And the foe be ten to one—
Though our only reward be the thrust of a sword
And a bullet in heart or brain.
What matters one gone, if the flag float on
And Britain be Lord of the main!

—Frederick George Scott

THE UNION JACK

It's only a small piece of bunting,
It's only an old coloured rag;
Yet thousands have died for its honour,
And shed their best blood for the flag.

It's charged with the cross of St. Andrew,
Which, of old, Scotland's heroes has led;
It carries the cross of St. Patrick,
For which Ireland's bravest have bled.

Joined with these is our old English ensign,
St. George's red cross on white field;
Round which, from Richard to Roberts,
Britons conquer or die, but ne'er yield.

It flutters triumphant o'er ocean,
As free as the wind and the waves;
And bondsmen from shackles unloosened,
'Neath its shadows no longer are slaves.

It floats o'er Australia, New Zealand,
O'er Canada, the Indies, Hong Kong;
And Britons, where'er their flag's flying,
Claim the rights which to Britons belong.

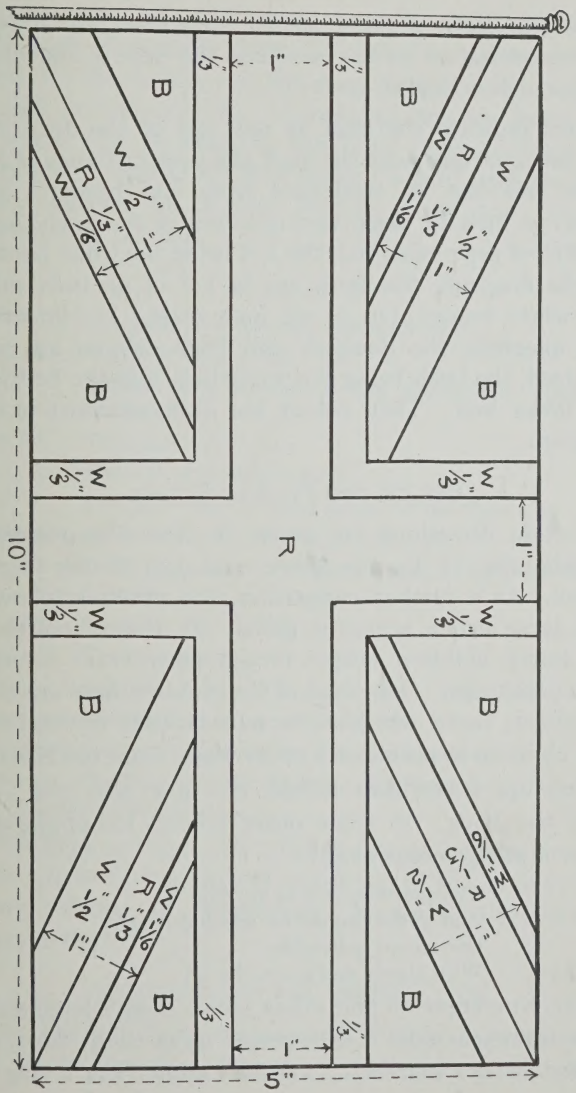
We hoist it to show our devotion
To our King, our country, and laws;
It's the outward and visible emblem,
Of progress and liberty's cause.

You may say it's an old bit of bunting,
You may call it an old coloured rag;
But freedom has made it majestic,
And time has ennobled our flag.

Detailed Directions

Draw an oblong, 5″ x 10″. The first cross to put in is the English cross. The *red* of this cross is always one-fifth (1/5) of the *width* of the Jack; here it is accordingly one (1) inch wide. Find the centre point of each side. On each side of this centre point, mark off ½ inch. Then join lightly the points directly opposite each other on the four sides. The construction lines should be drawn lightly, as they should not show when the colouring is completed, and parts of them must be erased, so as not to cross the red cross or its white border. On the outside of this red cross a border is added, always 1/3 of the width of the red cross; in this case it is 1/3 of an inch wide. This completes the English cross.

To put in the two diagonal crosses of St. Andrew and St. Patrick, it is necessary first to draw the two diagonals of the oblong. On these diagonals the two crosses are made. The width of the combined crosses and border is equal to the width of the red of the St. George's cross—in this case one inch. Mark two points ½ inch on each side of the two diagonals, by the aid


B
W
R
1"
1/3"
1/2"
1/6"
1/16"
10"
5"

of which, lines parallel to the diagonals are drawn, not forgetting to lift the pencil at the edge of the white border of the English cross.

Now indicate the staff at one end of the Jack. In the two quarters next the staff the upper ½ inch is left white, for the St. Andrew's cross and border. The lower ½ inch in these two quarters is the Irish Jack, the 2/3 of each being red, the 1/3 being the white border. In the diagram, the Irish red is 1/3 of an inch wide, the white border 1/6 of an inch wide. In the other two quarters, the Scottish and Irish colours are just reversed, the Irish being the upper half, and the Scottish the lower half. Then colour the Jack as shown in the diagram.

Use of the Flag in School

Certain directions are given in the Departmental Regulations as to the place and use of the flag in school. As a further suggestion, the practice followed in a large urban school is given. In this school there are many children either foreign-born or of foreign-born parentage. One-third of the children here are thus described; there are sixteen nationalities represented. The children in practically every class, from the Kindergarten up, every day salute the flag and sing God Save the King. In some other schools the pupils also recite a pledge occasionally:

> I pledge allegiance to my flag
> And to the Empire for which it stands,
> One nation indivisible
> With liberty and justice for all.

The Kindergarten and other junior classes have small flags for each child. On special days these flags are carried in the marches. Another school has a flag of

medium size (18″ x 36″ or 24″ x 48″) in a bracket outside each class room door. The flag is taken into the room for the salute and the opening exercises, then replaced in the bracket. Sometimes schools have also a larger flag or flags in the hall. Special days and passages in literature and history afford opportunities rarely missed to impress British ideals and the importance of the flag.

FLAG DAYS

Jan. 10.	The League of Nations, organized 1920
April 9.	Battle of Vimy Ridge, 1917
May	Empire Day, the school day immediately preceding May 24
May 24.	Victoria Day
June 3.	The King's Birthday, 1865.
July 1.	Dominion Day; Confederation of the Provinces, 1867
Sept. 13.	Battle of the Plains of Abraham, 1759
Oct. 13.	Battle of Queenston Heights, Death of Sir Isaac Brock, 1812
Oct. 21.	Trafalgar Day, 1805
Nov.	Thanksgiving Day
Nov. 11.	Armistice Day, Close of the Great War, 1918

Opening and closing days of each school term

Special occasions sanctioned by the Board of Trustees

Half-mast—On the death of a Trustee, an Officer of the Board, or a Teacher of the school.

Teachers are required to make such explanations to their pupils on the days of the flying of the flags as will enable them to appreciate properly the events commemorated.

SUGGESTIONS FOR EMPIRE DAY

For Empire Day, suggestions for special programmes are issued by the Department of Education. The

exercises may be varied, however, by including most of the subjects on the time-table. The following suggestions of interesting problems and other material will serve to keep the pupils' attention focused on the purpose of the day.

The purpose of Empire Day may be stated briefly:

1. To increase the pupils' knowledge of the various parts of the Empire.

2. To create in them fine ideals of a larger citizenship.

3. To give a feeling of responsibility for Canada's place and work in the Empire, both now and in the future.

EXERCISES SUGGESTED

1. In literature: Study one or more of the selections in the Public School Readers that are suitable; for example, in the IV Reader, pp. 1, 10, 11, 24, 105, 134, 142, 157, 227, 355, 393, 406; in the III Reader, pp. 25, 60, 192, 269, 311, 336, 343, 346. If these have been studied before, one or two might be read or recited by the pupils. In this Manual poems are given (pp. 102, 103) that may be used in the same way. Pamphlets containing suitable matter for Empire Day are sent out by the Department of Education each year.

2. In history: (1) Some information about the growth of the Empire; for example, how and when Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, or any other part of the Empire was added.

(2) Comparison of the size of the British Empire with that of any earlier Empire, such as the Persian, Greek, or Roman.

(3) The growth of Great Britain's commercial and naval supremacy, on what it is founded, what danger there is of losing it, etc.

(4) Interpretation of the Union Jack or of the Canadian ensign.

3. In geography: (1) Story of the "All-Red" route, or of the "All-Red" cable—explain the meaning of "All-Red" by reference to the map.

(2) "The sun never sets on the British flag." Make this clear by having the pupils notice on the map that there are red spots, showing British territory, on or not very far from every meridian line; British ships, too, are in every part of the ocean.

(3) Compare the population and the area of Great Britain, Canada, Australia, the United States, Germany, France, etc.

4. In arithmetic: The pupils may discover how many people there are to the square mile in these countries; they may be asked to work out the population Canada would have if she were as densely populated as England, the United States, Germany, etc.; how fast did the population of the United States increase in the first century after the Revolution; what will the population of Canada be in fifty years, if it increases as rapidly as the population of the United States in the last fifty, etc.; at the present rate of increase, when will Canada catch up to Great Britain? When surpass her? Indicate thus the possible position and power of Canada in the not distant future, in order to deepen the sense of responsibility for the use made of our opportunities. (Let the pupils search for as much of the material needed for these calculations as they can find in their text-books.)

5. In composition: Subjects may be given for either oral or written composition; they may be reproductions

of some of the exercises mentioned above, or they may be on topics connected with them.

6. In drawing: The pupils may draw the flag, or any map needed above.

7. In music: Patriotic and national songs may be sung.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

This topic might be developed in a discussion towards the end of the course in Form IV.

In the Treaty of Versailles, signed at the close of the Great War, one very important part, (it will probably come to be the most important part), dealt with the Covenant of the League of Nations. January 16th, 1920, may be considered the birthday of the League, for on that day the first session of the Council was held at Geneva, Switzerland. The membership has grown, until to-day fifty-five nations of the world send delegates to the Assembly that meets each year.

If we recall the social units mentioned on p. 11 in this Manual, we notice that they include the individual as the smallest unit, and the world or humanity as the largest. Before the organization of the League of Nations the largest unit recognized was the nation. Now, the human race is trying to make real the largest unit that may some time fulfil the prophecy of Tennyson about the "Parliament of Man."

The time for the birth of this new organization was the most unfavourable in the history of the world. It was at the close of the greatest war, when national animosities were at white heat, when national ambitions were urgent, when international good-will, on which alone such a League can be safely founded, seemed to be weakest. The wonder is, not that it has, in the six years

since its birth, done so little, but that is has done so much. One of the most striking features of the first meeting of the Assembly was the conciliatory tone of all the proceedings. Instead of the divisions and bickerings that might nationally have been expected at a meeting of representatives of forty-two nations from all parts of the world, with different racial and national points of view, and with antagonistic national ambitions, there was an earnest desire to forget the differences and seek common ground for action.

The League of Nations is not a superstate, to lay down the law to its member states. It does not lessen in any way the sovereignty of any state. It is an agency for getting peoples together to confer and consult on matters of international concern. It provides the machinery, hitherto in the world's history altogether lacking, for bringing nations together in great crises, in order to effect settlement without the use of armed force.

"The purpose of the League," says Lord Robert Cecil, "is to effect the settlement of disputes. To accomplish this result we will travel any road that leads toward the goal." The most powerful weapon it has is the moral judgment of the world, as expressed in the debates and resolutions of the delegates. That nation will be very bold that persists in a course of action that defies the adverse judgment of the other nations of the world. Sir Edward Grey tried to the last minute to have a conference of the Great Powers of Europe in 1914, in the hope of preventing war. Such a conference is now functioning constantly.

Accomplishments:

1. Settlement of dispute between Sweden and Finland over the ownership of the Aaland Islands.

2. Determination of boundaries between Poland and Lithuania—a new state.

3. Determination of frontier in Upper Silesia between Poland and Germany—a matter which the Supreme council failed to arrange.

4. Repatriation of 400,000 prisoners of war.

5. Settlement of boundary dispute between Albania and Yugo-Slavia.

6. Financial restoration of Austria and Hungary.

7. Aid to the Greek refugees from Turkey.

8. Settlement of Greco-Italian quarrel, through the Council of Ambassadors.

9. Settlement of the quarrel between Greece and Bulgaria, in which hostilities had already begun.

Other activities of the League include financial and economic questions, health, transportation, labour, security and armaments, protection of minorities, social questions, such as white slavery, etc. A concise statement of the organization and work of the League (The League of Nations; A Survey 20c.), is available on application to the League of Nations Society of Canada, with headquarters at Ottawa.

Two of the most remarkable results of the influence and work of the League are the Permanent Court of International Justice and the recent Locarno Pacts signed Dec. 1st, 1925, by which Germany, France, Belgium, Poland, and Czecho-Slovakia agree to settle *all* disputes by peaceful means, by diplomacy, or arbitration, or reference to the League of Nations.

Details of machinery, work, cost, etc., are given in the Pamphlet referred to above.

CHAPTER VII

SPECIAL TOPICS

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

These subjects are very intimately related, and each should be used in teaching the other. Geography, which is often called one of the "eyes of history," may be used in two ways in the teaching of history.

In the first place, an account of an historical event lacks, to a certain degree, reality in the minds of the pupils if they do not know something of the place where it occurred. Accordingly, in studying or teaching history, reference should constantly be made to the map, to give a local setting to the story. The voyage of Columbus, the operations of Wolfe, the coming of the Loyalists, are made more real if the movements are traced on the map, and these events are, therefore, better understood and remembered by the pupils. For this purpose, it is better, in most cases, to use an outline map which may be sketched on the black-board by the teacher or the pupils. On the ordinary wall maps there are so many names and so much detail that the attention may be distracted. Moreover, many of the details on the map are more modern than the events that are to be illustrated, so that wrong impressions may be given.

In the second place, without a knowledge of certain facts of geography it is impossible to understand many facts in history, both industrial and political. For example, the lack of a natural boundary between France and Germany has led to many disputes between these

countries; the fact that Great Britain is an island accounts for many things in her history; the lack of a good seaport has influenced the foreign policy of Russia; the physical features of Quebec and Gibraltar explain the importance of these places; the waterways of Canada account for the course of early settlement. The climate and soil of a country affect its history; treaties are often based on physical conditions, and trade routes determined by them; a nation's commerce and wealth depend largely on the character of its natural resources.

Some problems such as the following, may be given to the senior classes to be answered by reference to physical conditions:

Why are London, New York, Chicago, Montreal, and Halifax such important centres? Why are certain places (Hamilton, Toronto, Montreal, Yarmouth, Winnipeg, etc.) fitted for certain industries? Will Winnipeg become a more important city than Montreal? What is a possible future of the Western Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan? How have the Rocky mountains influenced settlement and transportation? What has been the influence on trade of the Panama Canal?

On the other hand, history contributes a human interest to geography; the places of greatest interest are often those associated with great events in history—Athens, Mount Sinai, Waterloo, Queenston Heights.

HISTORY AND LITERATURE

Literature gives life and human interest to both history and geography. By means of literature we are able to get a better notion of the ideals and motives of a people than by the mere recital of the facts of their history. In this connection we naturally think of Homer's *Iliad* and its influence on the Greeks. It was their

storehouse of history, morals, religion, aesthetics, and rules for the practical guidance of life, as well as their literary masterpiece.

It is often easy to interest pupils in a period of history by reading or quoting to them some ballad, poem, or prose narrative that colours the historical facts with the element of human feeling. Macaulay's *Horatius* gives a deeper impression of Roman patriotism than almost anything in pure history is able to give, and the various aspects of the Crusades are vividly shown by W. Stearns Davis in *God Wills It*—a story of the First Crusade.

In fact, if stirring events can be linked in the child's mind with stirring verse, if the struggles and progress of nations can be presented in a vigorous narrative that echoes the thoughts, feelings, and interests of the time, we make an appeal to the interest of the pupil that is almost irresistible.

The objection is sometimes urged against the reading of standard historical tales and novels, that they are somewhat exaggerated in sentiment and inaccurate in facts. Even if this be so, it may be said that they give in outline a fair picture of the period described, that the interest in history aroused by such tales begets a liking for history itself, and that such exaggerations and inaccuracies are soon corrected when the pupil begins to read history.

As examples of the illustrative value of literature may be mentioned: *Boadicea*, Cowper; *Recessional*, Kipling; *Columbus*, Miller; *The Revenge*, Tennyson; *The Charge of the Light Brigade*, Tennyson.

It sometimes happens that certain books, songs, ballads, and stories have modified the course of history.

What an influence songs like *Rule Britannia*, *The Marseillaise*, *The Brabançonne*, and *Scots Wha Hae* have had on national spirit and ideals! Nor it is easy to measure the effects in the study of history of books like *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, Marx's *Das Kapital*, and many of the novels of Dickens and Charles Reade.

HISTORY AND SCIENCE

The connection between history and science is very close, because it was only after the invention of writing, that history—the record of human progress—became possible. Further, the remarkable way in which the chief stages in the development of civilization coincide with certain inventions and discoveries makes the study of history very incomplete without a knowledge of the inventions and discoveries, inasmuch as by these a road for human development was opened.

To make this evident, it is enough merely to mention a few comparatively recent inventions, such as the mariner's compass, the printing-press, gunpowder, the steam-engine, the power-loom, the cotton-gin, the telegraph, the telephone, and the radio.

To the introduction of the mariner's compass in the fourteenth century, by which sailors were made independent of landmarks and the stars, and could, therefore, go more boldly into the open sea, we owe the explorations of the fifteenth century that culminated in the discovery of America and the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope.

The introduction of gunpowder in the fourteenth century gave the lower and middle classes a weapon that made them equal in power with the nobles, and brought

about the downfall of the feudal system and the rise of modern democracies.

The printing-press gave to the world the learning of the past and revolutionized social conditions. The invention of high explosives has made possible many of the great engineering works of to-day.

The inventions that have made transportation and communication so easy and rapid have already done a great deal to bring nations to a better understanding of each other, and thus to promote the peace of the world. Discoveries in medicine, alone, have had an incalculable influence on the health and the prosperity of society.

In fact, the study of history and an understanding of modern social and industrial conditions are impossible without a knowledge of scientific inventions and discoveries. (See Industrial Revolution, Chapter VIII.)

Children naturally take an interest in what individuals have done; and it is easy to interest them in the work of men such as Watt, Stephenson, Whitney, Fulton, Morse, Edison, Marconi, and their fellows. The biographies of famous inventors should, therefore, be given, both as a record of what they did and as an inspiration to like achievements.

HISTORY AND CHRONOLOGY, OR THE USE OF DATES

Geography is one of "the eyes of history," chronology, or the arranging of events according to their dates, is the other. It is through these two that we are able to get clear, definite pictures of historical happenings and their relations. The use of dates in history teaching is, then, chiefly to emphasize certain time relations; when these relations are understood, the dates lose their value.

For example, in the study of the Industrial Revolution, the use of dates emphasizes the rapidity with which most of the inventions came, six of the most important occurring between 1764 and 1792. When this is realized, there is little use in remembering the dates. They are only a means to an end, not an end in themselves.

There are, however, important dates that every one should know, because of the importance of the events connected with them; for example, 1066, 1215, 1492, 1603, 1688, 1759, 1776, 1789, 1841, 1867, 1914, 1920. It is useful, also, to know certain dates, so as to compare countries at the same time; for example, 1603 in Britain and Canada; 1789 in France and the United States.

CURRENT EVENTS

The study of history should not end with what is contained in text-books. "History is of value chiefly because of the light it throws upon the present." This implies that there should be some knowledge of the present that will require a knowledge of history to understand. Besides, teachers and pupils who are interested in the events of to-day are much more likely to be interested in the events of the past.

A knowledge of current events will arouse curiosity in what led up to them, and, therefore, supply a motive for studying the past; children can compare conditions of to-day with those a century ago, will realize the tremendous changes for the better, and will learn to whom we owe the present improved conditions. Current events will often supply concrete examples for both history and civics. In fact, the teaching of a large part of civics may be based almost entirely on current events.

The influence of a knowledge of current events on the study of history has been plainly shown during the

Great War in the efforts of people to seek in history the causes of the War. History becomes real when pupils understand that what is happening now has its roots in the past and will influence what is to come. For example, the Great War has certainly intensified our interest in the great movement to prevent war by means of some form of agreement among nations for the settlement of international disputes, as we are taught to settle our personal disputes—by an appeal to courts of justice.

The value of this phase of history teaching depends very largely on the interest taken in it by the teacher and on the work that the pupils can be induced to do for themselves.

To get the pupils at work the teacher talks to them in an interesting way about some important current event. Then the pupils are encouraged to add to what he has said by relating what they have heard or have read in the newspapers. After a few lessons, the chief difficulty is to make a suitable selection of topics for class discussion. Those of national importance, if within the comprehension of the class, will have prominence; and the pupils will be given hints as to articles about these topics in papers, magazines, and books. It is obvious that topics likely to arouse religious, political, racial, or other party feeling, should be avoided.

SUGGESTIONS

There are various ways of conducting this kind of discussion. The teacher may suggest certain topics worthy of discussion, and the pupils should come prepared to tell what they have read in the papers about some of them. The teacher aids them to give fit expression to their information, either by question,

criticism, or contribution of an important fact. It is much better, however, if the class is able to select its own items for discussion.

A device for giving training in civics is for pupils to elect an editorial committee, whose business it is to sift out the important items from all those sent in, put those selected into good form, and then begin the discussion by a sort of oral editorial. It is not hard to keep a class like this going; the difficult thing is to get it started. The editors should be able to spell and write well, and should be frequently changed, so that the training that accompanies the work may be distributed. One of the best results is learning the distinction between *news* and *gossip*. If the pupils are trained to look for *real news*, perhaps the news standards of the public may be improved in time.

In order that boys and girls may follow their own ideas of news, there should be a *Boys' News Column* and a *Girls' News Column* on the black-board, or wherever the summary is kept—perhaps in a weekly paper read once a week. The chief value is, as said already, in the discussion, and to that, time should be given. There would be a good chance here, too, of selecting news items that encourage friendliness and good-will, not hostility and envy. When Parliament or any smaller public body is reported, there are plenty of topics for discussion free from party spirit.

As a variation, a pupil or group of pupils may be asked to watch the papers for all items of news relating to a certain topic, and to report these items to the whole class; for example, items referring to the League of Nations, the trouble between Turkey and Britain over Mosul, the development of Hydro-Electric power in Canada, the New Garnet wheat, etc.

Again, groups may be given the assignment of reporting each week the important items of local news, of provincial news, of Canadian news, of foreign news; and some may be on the lookout for items of interest about inventions, scientific discoveries, etc.

When Parliament or a municipal council is in session, a mock parliament or council may be held, and a bill put through the usual stages, with discussion of its merits. This training is in line with that received through the Junior Red Cross and provides a good medium for debating and oral composition.

Cartoons or other pictures on live topics from a newspaper or magazine may be shown by a pupil, who will tell what they mean.

In all this sort of work, the pupils are building up a vocabulary from the current press, words that they will need to understand later in life—prorogue, dissolve, by-election, plebiscite, etc.

LOCAL HISTORY

One of the chief uses of local history in the class room is to make the study of general history more vivid and interesting:

1. By making more real those facts of history associated with the locality in which we live.

2. By providing suitable illustrations, from the pupil's own experience, of facts in general history.

When a pupil has seen the place where an event of history has happened, he has an interest in that event that he could scarcely gain in any other way; and the history of that period may then be taught with more interest and profit to him. A pupil finds, also, in local history, certain facts that he must understand in order

to interpret the story of happenings distant in time and place.

Some parts of Ontario are much richer in material than others, but in all historic spots may be found. On the St. Lawrence River, in the Niagara peninsula, in the Talbot Settlement district, in York county, along the Ottawa River, in the Huron tract, there is no lack of useful material.

But it is not necessary to confine such local history to the outstanding events of war or the larger happenings of civil progress. In every locality there are remains of the earlier Indian inhabitants in the form of mounds, sites of villages, relics of war and the chase (arrowheads, stone implements, beads, etc.); relics of the early settlers in the form of roads and old log-houses; relics of pioneer life, consisting of furniture, household and outdoor implements, etc., that will serve as a basis for comparison with present-day conditions, and make real to the children the lives of the earlier inhabitants and settlers of Ontario.

ON MEMORIZING HISTORY

History is usually called a "memory" subject, and is, accordingly, often taught as a mere memorizing of facts, names, and dates. The following statement of the chief principles of memorizing will, it is hoped, put mere verbal repetition in its proper place. Interest is the chief condition for teaching history in the public schools, in order that the pupils may acquire a liking for the subject that will tempt them to pursue their reading in after years; without that interest the small amount of historical fact they can accumulate in their school-days will be of little real value to them when they become full-fledged citizens. In fact, through this emphasis on

interest instead of verbal repetition, the pupils are likely to obtain a better knowledge of history and, at the same time, will have a chance to develop in no slight degree their powers of judgment.

1. Memory depends on attention; we must observe attentively what we wish to remember. In history, attention may be secured by making the lessons interesting, through the skill of the teacher in presenting the matter vividly to the pupils; also by using means to make history real, instead of having it a mere mass of meaningless words.

2. Facts that we wish to remember should be grouped, or studied in relation to other facts with which they are vitally connected. The facts of history should be presented to the class in their relation of cause and effect, or associated with some larger centre of interest; in other words, pupils must understand, in some degree, what they are asked to remember.

3. If we increase the number of connections for facts, we are more likely to remember them. It is largely for this reason that history should be taught with correlated subjects, such as geography, literature, science (inventions), etc. For example, the story of the Spanish Armada is remembered better if we have read *Westward Ho!*, and the story of the Renaissance is made clearer and is, therefore, remembered better, if we connect with it the inventions of printing, gunpowder, and the mariner's compass.

4. Repetition is necessary to memory. Facts or groups of facts must be repeated to be remembered. This is the purpose of the drills which are necessary to good teaching, but are only a part of it. Reviews are not to be considered merely as repetitions, but should be treated more as aids to better understanding.

CHAPTER VIII

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL LESSONS

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND, 1760-1800

NOTE:—The lesson presentation of this matter should be preceded by an information lesson on the making of cotton goods—the material, how and where the raw material is grown, how it is harvested, the difference between spinning and weaving, the meaning of warp and woof.

THE aim of the lessons is to show how a remarkable series of inventions changed completely the processes of manufacturing, made England the greatest manufacturing nation in the world, and gave her a source of wealth that enabled her to carry on the costly wars against Napoleon. The half-century of this revolution is one of the most important in English history, on account of the changes in methods of transportation, in agriculture, and in social conditions. Indeed it is almost impossible to have a satisfactory knowledge of succeeding history without understanding this period. It is for this reason that it is treated at such length.

The matter may be divided into as many lessons as the teacher wishes. The dates given are not intended to be memorized by the pupils; they are introduced simply to emphasize the order of the inventions. To emphasize further the sequence, the class may be asked at each step what invention would be needed next. The oral method—both pure narrative and problem—is intended to be used.

1. *Domestic System of Manufacture:* Before 1760 the manufacture of cotton goods was carried on in the homes of the people. A spinner would procure a supply of

raw cotton from the dealer and carry it home, where, with the help of his family, he would spin it into threads or yarn and return it to the dealer. The spinning was all done by hand or foot-power on a wheel that required one person to run it, and only one thread at a time could be made.

The weaving was also done at home. Because of the use of Kay's flying shuttle (1732) which enabled one weaver to use the product of many spinners, the demand of the weavers for yarn was greater than the spinners could supply. There was great need of finding some way of producing yarn more rapidly, therefore, to keep the weavers busy.

2. *Hargreaves' Spinning-jenny*—The first important invention was the spinning-jenny of Hargreaves (1764). This man was an ordinary spinner, and the story is told that one day, when he was returning from the dealer with a fresh supply of cotton, he came home before his wife expected him. Supper was not ready, and in her haste to prepare it she overturned the wheel when it was still in motion. Hargreaves, entering at that moment, noticed that the spindle, usually horizontal, was now revolving in an upright position. This gave him an idea; and a short time afterwards he invented a machine with which one person could spin several threads at once (at first eight). From this has been developed the complicated machinery for spinning used to-day.

3. *Arkwright's Spinning-frame or Water-frame:* Sir Richard Arkwright invented, in 1771, a machine that accomplished the whole process of spinning, the worker merely feeding the machine and tying breaks in the thread. This machine was run by water-power, thus

doing away with hand-power and allowing the operator to attend entirely to the spinning.

4. *The Mule:* In 1779, Crompton invented a mule by which threads of a finer and stronger quality could be spun, and this made it possible to weave any grade of cloth.

5. *The Power-loom:* The spinners were now able to keep ahead of the weavers, till Cartwright invented, in 1785, a power-loom that enabled the weavers to work faster and use all the thread that the spinners could make.

6. *The Steam-engine:* These machines were run by hand or water-power. In 1785, Watt's steam-engine, invented several years before this, was used in the manufacture of cotton; and manufacturers were now able to use all the raw material they could get. The use of steam instead of water-power led to the building of factories in cities, where labour was plentiful and transportation facilities good. This meant large cities.

7. *The Cotton-gin:* Cotton had to be cleaned of its seeds before it could be used in the factory. It was necessary to do this by hand, which greatly hindered the supply of raw material. A great deal of the raw cotton came from the United States, and the planters there grew no more than could be cleaned and sold. In 1792, Eli Whitney, an American, invented the cotton-gin, by which the cotton could be cleaned of its seeds very quickly. Formerly a workman could clean by hand only five pounds of cotton a week. By the saw-gin five hundred pounds could be cleaned in an hour. (If a cotton-boll can be procured, the pupils will soon discover how difficult it is to separate the seeds from the cotton.)

More cotton was then grown, because it could be sold to the manufacturers of cotton goods; and England was able to get all she required to keep the factories going. It may be added here that the increase in cotton growing required more hands for its cultivation; this meant at that time more slaves; the cotton-gin was, therefore, a large factor in the slave troubles in the Southern States that led to the Civil War.

8. *Coal-mining and Smelting:* The machines mentioned were made of iron, and coal was needed to smelt the iron. There was plenty of coal in England, but very little was mined until the steam pump was brought into use to keep the mines clear of water. When this was done, more men went to work in the mines to get out the greater amount of coal that was now needed.

There was also plenty of iron ore in England; and before this it had been smelted by means of charcoal, which is made from wood. This slow and wasteful method was followed until Roebuck invented a process of smelting by coal, and thus made possible a plentiful supply of iron for the manufacture of the machines.

9. *The Safety Lamp:* Coal-mining was a dangerous occupation, because of the fire-damp that is generated in mines. The open lamps used by the miners often caused this gas to explode; and many men lost their lives thereby. To remedy this, Sir Humphrey Davy invented in 1815 the safety lamp, which gave the miners the light they needed while preventing these explosions. More men were now available for mining.

10. *Transportation:* Now that there was so much manufacturing carried on, people turned their attention to ways of transporting the goods where they were

needed. The roads were generally wretched, and in many parts of the country goods had to be carried on the backs of horses, as the roads were not fit for wheels. Macadam, by using broken stone to form the road-crust or surface, brought about a great improvement in road-making. (Show pictures of old-time roads and of the roads to-day.)

Transportation by water was difficult by reason of the obstructions in rivers. To overcome these, canals were dug. The first one was made in 1761 between some coal-mines and the town of Manchester. Before 1800 many more were dug, and transportation became much easier.

11. *Agriculture:* The number of people engaged in the factories was increasing, and these could not grow their own food. This made it necessary for the farmers to increase their output. Farms became larger; better methods of cultivation were used; winter roots were grown, making it possible to raise better cattle; fertilizers were used in greater quantities; and the rotation of crops was introduced to prevent the exhaustion of the soil.

12. *Social Conditions:* Out of the factory system grew the division of classes into capital and labour, the struggle between whom is the great problem of to-day. It was then that labour unions came into existence.

We see, as a result of these inventions, that England was changed from an agricultural country to a land of large manufacturing cities, and became the chief manufacturing centre of the world. This development in manufactures made England wealthy and able to furnish the money which defeated Napoleon Bonaparte. The latter is credited with the statement that it was not England's armies that defeated him, but her "spindles."

The oral narration may be reinforced by showing, at the proper time, pictures, some of which may have been shown in Industrial Geography—pictures such as the following: Spinning and weaving machines before and after the revolution; the raw material; cotton-fields of the South; cotton boll; bales ready for shipment; samples of various kinds of cloth made from cotton, unknown before the change—muslin, cheese-cloth, cambric, duck, canton flannel, calico, gingham—(note also the cheapness of cotton goods); interior of a workman's cottage before the change; canals; roads and vehicles before Macadam and Telford. It is not likely that a teacher can show all of these, but some are surely available. The pupils may contribute some of these pictures or articles, which they may put into either a class or an individual scrapbook.

The following summary may be put on the blackboard, the pupils suggesting the headings, if possible. The outline may be used for reproduction and may be kept by the class in a note-book for reference, as it is partly, at least, their own work. The outline will emphasize two things:

1. The rapidity with which these changes occurred.

2. The fact that the inventions and improvements came when the need for them was known. The relation of cause and effect is plain.

BLACKBOARD SUMMARY

1. Domestic System:
   (1) Spinning and weaving done at home.
   (2) Workers often owned their machines.
   (3) They grew much of their food in gardens.
   This was a great help when work was slack.

2. Weaving—1732, Kay's Flying Shuttle.

3. Spinning—1764, Hargreaves' Spinning-jenny—eight threads at once.

4. Spinning—1771, Arkwright's Water-frame—did all the work of spinning.

5. Spinning—1779, Crompton's Mule—finer and stronger threads.

6. Weaving—1785, Cartwright's Power-loom

7. Spinning and weaving—1785, Watts' Steam-engine used for both operations.

8. Changes in location of factories when steam used. Large cities in north where coal was found.

9. Whitney's Cotton-gin—1792, for cleaning seeds from cotton bolls.

10. Increased cultivation of cotton in Southern States. Influence on slavery—Civil War in U.S.

11. Demand for coal and iron for factories. Roebuck's process of smelting with coal.

12. Davy's Safety-lamp—1815, helped mining.

13. Need for better transportation
    (1) Canals
    (2) Roads—Macadam and Telford

14. Effect on agriculture:
    (1) More enclosures—larger farms
    (2) Rotation of crops
    (3) Fertilizers used more freely
    (4) New crops—winter roots
    (5) Better breeds of farm animals

15. Social results:
    (1) Labour and Capital
    (2) Labour unions
    (3) Factory Acts

16. Great increase in manufactures, trade, and wealth generally.

NOTE:—The topics noted in these lessons may be taken up advantageously in much greater detail than is given here. The Industrial Revolution may be treated as a *Project*; and various pupils may be given the work of looking up interesting material about the sort of roads they had about 1750, and about the vehicles used then. Books in the library may be referred to; for example, the volume on Social History in *The Highroads of History;* some of Dickens' novels, etc. Other pupils may hunt up something about the first locomotives and steamships.

The teacher may refer to some of the modern social problems resulting in large part from this industrializing of the country: Overcrowding in cities, bad housing and slums, urban and suburban transportation, educational problems, efforts to improve physical health, etc.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

Step I:

Discuss:

1. How property is owned to-day—title derived originally from the Crown.

2. How our country is defended—by military service, to which certain classes of men are liable.

3. How justice is administered—who has the power of life and death over us.

Step II:

Let us find out the older customs in regard to these things—to see how and why they were different from ours.

Step III:

In early times life was rougher and more unsettled than now; people depended more on force for safety

against invasion, against attacks by robbers or by more powerful neighbours, etc. A man had to be powerful to protect himself; so that those who were not very powerful felt the need of *buying* protection from some neighbouring lord who could protect him. In this way some men became *vassals.*

Also, when a king conquered new territory, he could not look after it all himself, and, besides, he had to reward those who helped him—so he gave portions of it to worthy, faithful lords who had fought for him. These, in turn, subdivided *their* land among *their* faithful followers. All those below the rank of king, who held land, were called *vassals.*

In these two ways, therefore—by weak people seeking protection, and by kings or lords with much land dividing it among their supporters—a system of land-holding *grew up* all over Europe and England, called the *Feudal System.* After the land had passed from father to son for a few generations, the system became firmly fixed and was the main factor in the life of the country.

In return for this protection and for the land granted to them, people had to pay the lord. These payments were of three sorts:

1. Military service—(The teacher describes it—and also some of the feudal ceremonies, customs, etc., shows pictures of knights, ladies, tournaments, etc.)

2. Feudal aids—usually three in number—
   (1) On the knighting of the lord's eldest son
   (2) On the marriage of the lord's eldest daughter
   (3) To ransom the lord from captivity

3. Court service—vassal was bound to attend suzerain's courts and give help and advice when required.

In these courts the lord often had power of life and death.

Keeping in mind these payments, the class may explain why the following things were done under the feudal system:

1. The king controlled the land of a minor and retained the revenue.

2. The king selected or approved the husband of an heiress.

3. The king's assent was needed for the transfer of property.

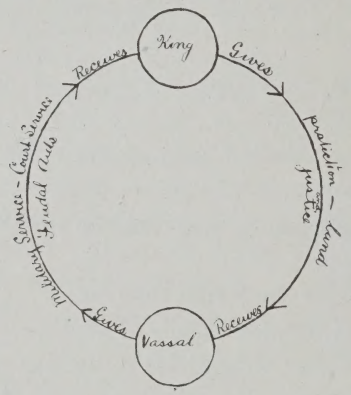
The outline for the lesson thus far:

1. Why men became *vassals* of another:
   (1) Because of need for protection and fair play
   (2) Because of a grant of land from his lord
2. What the lord demanded in return:
   (1) Military service
   (2) Feudal aids
   (3) Court service
3. What is left of this system to-day:
   (1) Title to land originally from the Crown
   (2) Military service to the Crown for certain classes
   (3) Substitution of money taxes to the Crown instead of feudal aids to the lord
   (4) Duty of serving on a jury at the call of the Crown

A diagram may be drawn showing the subdivision of the land—king to many nobles, each noble to several lesser nobles, each lesser noble to knights, etc. A chart may also show what the king or lord gave and received.

Step IV:

Reproduction in the usual way may follow; the chart or diagram may be left for the pupils to construct,



some book may be read giving further details about the feudal system, etc.

The New Learning

1. The aim of the lesson or lessons is to make the pupils of Form IV familiar with one of the most important movements in English history, by having them study the meaning, causes, tendencies, and effects of the New Learning.

2. As an introduction, a lesson or two should be given on the conditions prevailing in Europe during the latter part of the Middle Ages, because a knowledge of these conditions is essential to a right understanding of many of the causes of the New Learning.

The New Learning was a phase of a greater movement called the Renaissance, which arose in Italy during the fourteenth century. The Renaissance marked the

end of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern history. It meant re-birth, a new life. People took a new interest in living. The influence of the monk and of the knight was passing, and the man of affairs, with his broader sympathies, his keener vision, his more varied interests, and his love of liberty, was coming into prominence.

How to enjoy life, how to get the greatest value out of it, became the great problem. In their attempt to solve this problem people turned their attention to the ancient literature of Greece and Rome; for it was believed that the ancient Greeks and Romans had a fine appreciation of the meaning and beauty of life. They began to seek out the old literature and to study it. This new study has been called the Revival of Learning, or the New Learning. The influence of these two great literatures soon made itself felt. Every province of knowledge was investigated, and people everywhere were influenced by this great intellectual awakening.

3. The following were the chief causes of the movement:

(1) The Crusades
(2) The Fall of Constantinople, 1453
(3) The introduction of the mariner's compass
(4) The invention of gunpowder
(5) The invention of the printing-press
(6) The overthrow of the feudal system
(7) The desire for knowledge stimulated by the universities
(8) The failure of the schools of the Middle Ages to meet the demands and needs of the times.

4. The relation of each of these causes to the New Learning must be shown. In dealing with the Crusade movement as a cause, it will be necessary to help the

children to see the effect produced on the people of northern Europe by their coming into contact with the more highly cultivated people in southern Europe; and also the effect produced on the people of Europe by their mingling with the nations of the luxurious East—the Greeks of Constantinople and the brilliant Mohammedan scholars of Palestine. The Crusades made the people dissatisfied with the conditions that had prevailed so long in Europe, and this fact alone gave an impetus to the New Learning.

The relation of printing to the spread of the movement is evident. The introduction of printing meant the cheapening of books, their more general use, and the spread of education. This was followed by a growing independence of thought and a desire for greater political and religious freedom.

The other causes may be similarly treated.

5. The New Learning was represented in England by a group of scholars, of whom Erasmus, Colet, and More were the chief. The great churchmen, too, were its patrons. Men of every rank were interested, and the movement affected the whole life of the people. A new interest was taken in education, in art, in religion, and in social reform. Old methods of instruction were superseded by more rational ones. Hundreds of new schools were established for the benefit of the middle classes. The whole tendency of the New Learning was toward a higher intellectual and more moral life.

6. Its effects:

(1) It awakened a desire for an intellectual life and for social reform.

(2) It made possible the Reformation.

(3) It led to the establishment of schools and libraries and to the extension of the usefulness of the universities.

(4) It aroused the desire for liberty and the spirit of enterprise, and encouraged commercial activity.

(5) It inspired some of the world's greatest artists in painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, and music.

(6) It implanted the seeds of freedom of thought and fostered the spirit of scientific research.

(7) It supplied higher ideals of life and conduct, a fact which became responsible to a large extent for the great improvement made in the condition of the people, and in the development of Europe since that time.

NOTE:—References to the discoveries made by Copernicus, Columbus, and the Cabots should be made. The pupils should read or hear short accounts of Erasmus, More, and Colet. A careful development of the causes and meaning of the movement should aid the pupils to anticipate its chief results.

It is assumed, of course, that the study of this topic will occupy several lesson periods.

THE FIGHT FOR CONSTITUTIONAL LIBERTY IN CANADA, 1759-1867

In the struggle for constitutional liberty in British Canada, there are several distinct stages:

I. 1760 to 1763—Military Rule:

1. Amherst the nominal governor; Canada divided into three districts.

2. Little disturbance of French customs; the *habitants* content.

3. Influx of "old" subjects—their character. (See *Ontario High School History of Canada,* pp. 127-8.)

II. 1763 to 1774 (Quebec Act):

1. Period of Civil Government under General Murray
2. Unrest owing to demands of the "old" subjects
3. Conditions of government:
   (1) Governor and Advisory Council of twelve all appointed by Crown.
   (2) Assembly permitted but not feasible; depended on will of Governor.
   (3) British law, both civil and criminal, prevailed.
   (4) All money matters in hands of Council.

4. At this time the French greatly outnumbered the British, and the fear of the Revolution of the American Colonies led to the French being favoured in the Quebec Act, 1774.

III. 1774 to 1791—Quebec Act to Constitutional Act:

1. Both "old" and "new" subjects dissatisfied—the French with British Court procedure, the British with French feudal customs.

2. Provisions of the Quebec Act:
   (1) Change of boundaries (See text-book.)
   (2) Governor and Legislative Council appointed; no assembly called.
   (3) French Civil Law; British Criminal Law
   (4) No oath required, as before, hostile to the Roman Catholic Church—beginning of religious liberty.
   (5) Legislative Council had no control of taxation.

IV. 1791 to 1841—Constitutional Act to Act of Union:
Provisions of Constitutional Act:

1. Upper and Lower Canada divided, because the French and the British could not agree on many points.

2. Each Province had a Governor, a Legislative Council, a Legislative Assembly, and an Executive Council. The Legislative Council was composed of the highest officials, appointed practically for life, and responsible to no one. Many of these were also members of the Executive Council. The Legislative Assembly was elected and was yet without control of the whole revenue, as the Home Government still collected "all duties regulating colonial navigation and commerce."

3. The Clergy Reserves were established; later to become a bone of contention.

V. 1841 to 1867—Act of Union to British North America Act.

The demands of the people for responsible government, that is, for control of the Executive and of taxation, became so insistent that the Act of Union was passed, following Lord Durham's report on the Rebellion of 1837.

Provisions of the Act of Union:

1. Legislative Council appointed (20 members).

2. Legislative Assembly elected (42 from each Province, later 65 from each).

3. Executive Council selected from both Houses.

4. A permanent Civil List of £75,000 was granted.

5. The Legislative Assembly controlled the rest of the revenue. Money bills were to originate with the Government. This was really Responsible Government, as it was developed under Elgin.

VI. 1867 to the present:

The British North America Act was the statement of a complete victory of the people for Responsible Government. The Executive Council (Cabinet) is wholly

responsible to Parliament, in which the members of the Executive must have seats; the raising and the spending of revenue is wholly in the hands of the people's representatives. For a clear summary of the concessions won by Canadians, see Bourinot, *How Canada is Governed*, page 34; see also *Ontario High School History of Canada*, pp. 415-451.

CHAPTER IX

(The following stories are inserted for easy reference.)

ST. GEORGE

St. George was born of Christian parents. He was carefully educated, and at the age of seventeen became a soldier. He served his master, the Roman Emperor Diocletian, so well that he rose to an important position. However, he left the service of the Emperor because of the persecutions to which the Christians were subjected. He gave to the poor all his wealth and started out in search of Knightly adventure.

One day he came to a certain city where he found the people in great trouble. A great dragon had taken up his abode near the city and had begun to devour the flocks and herds of the people. If he could get none to eat, he would enter the city and poison the air with his breath so that any one near him would die. To keep him away, they had to provide for him a sheep every day. The animals were soon all gone, and now the people had to send him a child.

Since the children were chosen by lot, no parents were free from the fear of having their children taken, and so it happened that the King's daughter, a very beautiful girl, was chosen as a victim. Now, on the very day that she had to go out to the dragon's den, St. George came riding toward the city.

When he saw this lovely child weeping so bitterly, he stopped to ask her what the trouble was, because it was to help people in distress that he was travelling through the country. She told him all her story, and he

promised to free her from the dragon. She did not believe that he could, because the dragon was such a horrible monster that she thought no man could conquer it. The Knight would not go away, and just then the dragon came towards them, half crawling and half flying. Calling on his God for aid, St. George attacked the monster, and, after a terrible fight, he pinned it to the ground with his lance. Then he killed the dragon and cut off its head.

When they came to the city, the Knight appealed to the people to believe in God, who had helped him to conquer the dragon, and to live according to His teachings. The people, of course, were overjoyed at the destruction of their oppressor, and the King gave St. George great gifts, which he, in turn, gave away to the poor and the sick.

Soon after this, the Emperor made a proclamation condemning all Christians. Having prepared himself for the worst that could happen, St. George came to the Emperor and demanded liberty for his fellow Christians. He was thrown into prison and put to great tortures, but in his suffering he heard voices that said: "Fear not; so it is with all those who witness to the truth."

Finally the Emperor commanded that the Christian Knight should be beheaded. This happened in the year 303. He is now called a saint and stands as a model for those who help the oppressed and serve their fellowmen.

When the English were engaged in the Crusades they came to know and admire St. George, and it is said that King Richard won a naval battle against the Saracens near a place sacred to St. George. Whatever the reason,

the English adopted him as their model, King Edward III commanded that he should be called the patron saint of England, and the day of his death, April 23rd, is still celebrated by English people.

ST. ANDREW

St. Andrew was one of the twelve apostles, the brother of Simon Peter. After the Ascension of Christ, he is believed to have travelled as a missionary in Asia Minor and in Greece. He finally suffered martyrdom in the city of Patra about the year 70 A.D. The Roman governor had him scourged and then bound to a cross, from which he continued to preach as long as life remained.

His body was deposited, a great many years afterwards, in a church in Constantinople erected in honour of the Twelve Apostles. The story goes that a pious monk took his remains, about the year 380, to Scotland, and deposited them in a church in Fife, at the place now called St. Andrews. This is how he has come to be the patron saint of Scotland, and his day, the 30th of November, is celebrated every year by the Scottish people.

To account for the white cross on a blue ground, there is a story that once, when a Scottish army was opposed by a great force, the Scottish leaders prayed to St. Andrew; and in answer to their prayers the white cross of the saint, composed of clouds, appeared against the background of the blue sky. Since that time the Scottish ensign has been a saltire cross on a blue field.

ST. PATRICK

A little while before the Romans left Britain, a boy was born on the banks of the Clyde, who became the

great apostle of Christianity to Ireland. His parents are said to have educated him as well as they could, until when he was about sixteen years old a pirate ship from Ireland sailed up the river and carried him off as slave. He was a slave in Ireland for many years and was made to herd cattle. He had been taught to be a Christian, and he was much grieved over the heathen practices of the Irish.

After some years he managed to escape and came back home. His friends wanted him to remain with them, but he could not forget the people he had left. So he prepared himself at a monastery on the Continent to be able to do more for the Irish and convert them to Christianity. He then went to Ireland with other priests and began his work. Of course, he had great opposition and was often in danger of death. A great many stories are told about St. Patrick; only one will be given.

At one time the King of Meath was having a heathen feast at his palace. It was the spring festival, about the time of our Easter, and one thing they did at this feast was to light the King's fire. Now, no one was allowed to make a fire on this night before the King lighted his. St. Patrick and his friends were camped a few miles away on a hill, and as night came on they lighted a fire for warmth. The King saw the fire and led his men to seize these bold men and put them to death. However, St. Patrick was protected by miracles from their violence, and finally succeeded in converting the King from his evil ways to Christianity.

St. Patrick then went up and down Ireland, preaching and building churches, schools, and monasteries.

Many pupils came to these monasteries and helped to civilize a great many other countries. That is why St. Patrick is known as the patron saint of Ireland.

THE FIRST CHRISTMAS TREE

Did you ever hear the story of the first Christmas tree? This is the way it was told to me: Martin Luther was a good man who lived in Germany long ago. One Christmas Eve he was walking to his home. The night was cold and frosty with many stars in the sky. He thought he had never seen stars look so bright. When he got home he tried to tell his wife and children how pretty the stars were, but they did not seem to understand. So Luther went out into his garden and cut a little evergreen tree. This he set up in the room and fastened tiny candles all over it, and when he had lighted them, they shone like stars.

One of Luther's neighbours came in that night, and when she saw the tree she thought how one would please her children. Soon she had one in her house, too. And the idea spread from house to house until there were Christmas trees all over Germany.

Queen Victoria of England was married to a German prince, and the German custom of a Christmas tree for the children was followed in the royal palace. Of course, after the Queen had a tree other people must have one, too. So the Christmas tree came to England.

The little French boys and girls have not had them so long. Not very many years ago there was a war between France and Germany. At Christmas time the German soldiers were in Paris. They felt sorry to be so far from their own little boys and girls on Christmas eve. But they knew how to have something to remind them of home. Every soldier who could, got a little

evergreen tree and put candles on it. The French saw them, and were so pleased that now, every year, they, too, have Christmas trees.

So many people from England, Germany, and France have come to our country to live, that we, too, have learned about Christmas trees. And that is why you and so many other little girls and boys have such pretty trees on Christmas eve.

THE ORIGIN OF THE EASTER BUNNY

Childish voices are asking why the rabbit is seen with the eggs and the chickens that fill the shop windows and show-cases at Easter. The legend that established the hare as a symbol of the Eastertide is not generally known. It is of German origin and runs as follows:

Many years ago, during a cruel war, the Duchess of Lindenburg, with her two children and an old servant, fled for safety to a little obscure village in the mountains. She found the people very poor, and one thing that surprised her much was that they used no eggs. She learned that they had never seen or heard of hens; and so when the old servant went to get tidings of his master and of the war, he brought back with him some of these birds.

The simple village folk were greatly interested in the strange fowl; and when they saw the tiny yellow chickens breaking their way out of the eggs, they were full of delight. But the Duchess was saddened by the thought that Easter was drawing near, and that she had no gifts for the little mountain children. Then an idea came to her. The spring was beginning to colour the earth with leaves and flowers, and she made bright dyes out of herbs and roots and coloured the eggs. Then the children were invited to visit the Duchess, and she told them

stories of the glad Easter day, and afterwards bade each make a nest of moss among the bushes. When they had all enjoyed the little feast provided in their honour, they went back to the woods to look at their nests. Lo! in each were five coloured eggs.

"What a good hen it must have been to lay such beautiful eggs," said one child.

"It could not have been a hen," said another. "The eggs that the hens lay are white. It must have been the rabbit that jumped out of the tree when I made my nest."

And all the children agreed that it was the rabbit, and to this day the mystic Bunny is supposed to bring eggs and gifts at Easter to the little children of the "fatherland" who have been loving and kind during the year.

THE STORY OF ST. VALENTINE

Once upon a time, there lived in a monastery across the sea a humble monk called Valentine. Every Brother, save himself seemed to have some special gift.

Now there was Brother Angelo, who was an artist, and painted such wonderful Madonnas that it seemed as if the holy mother must step down from the frame and bless her children.

Brother Vittorio had a wonderful voice, and on saints' days the monastery chapel would be crowded with visitors, who came from far and near just to listen to that wonderful voice as it soared up among the dim old arches.

Brother Anselmo was a doctor, knew the virtues of all roots, herbs, and drugs, and was kept very busy going about among the sick, followed by their tearful, grateful blessing.

Brother Johannes was skilled in illuminating, and Valentine often watched the page grow under his clever hand. How beautiful would then be the gospel story, in brightly-coloured letters, with dainty flowers, bright-winged butterflies, and downy, nestling birds about the borders!

Brother Paul was a great teacher in the monastery school, and even learned scholars came to consult him. Friar John ruled the affairs of the little monastery world with wisdom and prudence. Indeed, out of the whole number, only Valentine seemed without special talent.

The poor man felt it keenly. He longed to do some great thing. "Why did not the good God give me a voice like Vittorio or a skilled hand like Angelo?" he would often inquire of himself bitterly. One day as he sat sadly musing on these things, a voice within him said clearly and earnestly: "Do the little things, Valentine; there the blessing lies." "What are the little things?" asked Valentine, much perplexed. But no answer came to this question. Like every one else, Valentine had to find his work himself.

He had a little plot where he loved to work, and the other monks said that Valentine's pinks, lilies, and violets were larger and brighter than any raised in the whole monastery garden.

He used to gather bunches of his flowers and drop them into the chubby hands of children as they trotted to school under the gray monastery walls. Many a happy village bride wore his roses on her way to the altar. Scarcely a coffin was taken to the cemetery but Valentine's lilies or violets filled the silent hands.

He got to know the birthday of every child in the village, and was fond of hanging on the cottage door

some little gift his loving hands had made. He could mend a child's broken windmill and carve quaint faces from walnut shells. He made beautiful crosses of silvery gray lichens, and pressed mosses and rosy weeds from the seashore. The same tender hands were ready to pick up a fallen baby or carry the water bucket for some weary mother.

Everybody learned to love the good Brother Valentine. The children clung to his long, gray skirts, and the babies crept out on the streets to receive his pat on their shining hair. Even the cats and dogs rubbed against him, and the little birds fluttered near him unafraid.

St. Valentine grew old, loving and beloved, never dreaming that he had found his great thing. When the simple monk died the whole countryside mourned, and hundreds came to look for the last time on the quiet face in the rude coffin.

A great duke walked bare-headed after that coffin, and one of the most noted Brothers of the church spoke the last words of blessing to the weeping people.

After his death it was remembered how sweet had been his little gifts, and the villagers said: "Let us, too, give gifts to our friends on the good Valentine's birthday." So ever since has the pretty custom been carried out, and on St. Valentine's day we send our friends little tokens of remembrance to say we love them.

THE FIRST THANKSGIVING DAY

It is nearly three hundred years since the first Thanksgiving Day. Though we have even more to be grateful for, I think that there are not many of us who feel quite so thankful as the little handful of people who set apart the first Thanksgiving Day.

There were not very many of them, just one little village in a big forest land and by the edge of a great ocean. Here, on the map, is where they lived. It is on the north-eastern shores of the United States and is called Plymouth. The people I am telling you about gave it that name when they came to it, nearly two years before they had their first Thanksgiving Day. It was the name of the last town they had seen in England. Here, on the map, is the English Plymouth, and you see what a long trip they had in their little vessel, called the *Mayflower*, to their new home.

You will wonder why they travelled so far to make new homes for themselves. It was because they wanted to worship God in their own way that they left England. They were not afraid of the long voyage and all its hardships; for they felt sure they were doing as God wished them to do. They arrived safely, too, and built their little village by the sea—the new Plymouth. One of the first buildings they put up was a little log church.

The first year was very hard for everybody. The winter was colder than they had ever known in England, and their houses were small and poorly built. They could not get any letters or news from their friends in England for many months. Food was not scarce, for there was always plenty of game and fish. But it was such a change from their old way of living that the people became ill, and in the spring there were many graves. But the worst thing about the new land was the Indians. These English people were afraid of them—and with good reason, too, for they were very fierce and sometimes very cruel. They tried not to let the Indians know how few they were, and even planted grain about the graves in the churchyards so that the Indians could not count how many had died.

But one of the Indian chiefs was friendly to the English and kept the other tribes from making war on them; and the second summer they had a great harvest, and everything was more comfortable. It was that autumn, just after the grain was gathered, that the minister spoke to them one Sunday about having a Thanksgiving day. "It seemeth right," he said, "God hath granted us peace and plenty. He has blessed us with a dwelling-place of peace. He has held back the savage red man from bringing harm to us. Therefore let us appoint a day of Thanksgiving."

After that all the people, even the boys and girls, were busy getting ready. The men took their guns and fishing-rods, and went into the forest, and brought home fowl, fish, and deer, and perhaps bear meat as well. The boys and girls gathered wild plums, and grapes, and corn, and brought in pumpkins from the gardens; and the women made pies, puddings, cakes, and bread, and baked the meat and corn. They had great piles of cakes, and rows and rows of pies, and loaves of bread and platters of meat, for they all expected company. You could not guess, I am sure, who were coming! They had sent word to the Indians near to come and spend Thanksgiving Day with them.

Do you suppose they came? Indeed they did. They came before breakfast and stayed until long after supper, and had a good time, and tasted everything the white women had cooked, and nodded their heads and said, "How" a great many times, to say it was good. Some of the little girls and boys were half afraid of them, but they need not have been; for that day the Indians felt very kindly toward the English.

Ask the pupils to mention things for which they are thankful.

LETTER FROM MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS, TO QUEEN ELIZABETH

Believe, Madame (and the doctors whom you sent to me this last summer can have formed an opinion), that I am not likely long to be in a condition which can justify jealousy or distrust. And this notwithstanding, exact from me such assurances and just and reasonable conditions as you wish. Superior force is always on your side to make me keep them, even though for any reason whatever I should wish to break them. You have had from observation enough experience of my bare promises, sometimes even to my own damage, as I showed you on this subject two years ago. Remember, if you please, what I then wrote you, and that in no way could you so much win over my heart to yourself as by kindness, although you have confined my poor body to languish between four walls; those of my rank and disposition not permitting themselves to be gained over or forced by any amount of harshness.

* * * * * * *

In conclusion, I have to request two things especially; the one that as I am about to leave this world I may have by me for my consolation some honourable churchman, in order that I may daily examine the road that I have to traverse and be instructed how to complete it according to my religion, in which I am firmly resolved to live and die. This is a last duty which cannot be denied to the most wretched and miserable person alive; it is a liberty which you give to all foreign ambassadors, just as all other Catholic kings allow yours the practice of their religion. And as for myself, have I ever forced my own subjects to do anything against their religion even when I had all power and authority over them? And you cannot justly bring it to pass that I should be

in this extremity deprived of such a privilege. What advantage can accrue to you from denying me this? I hope that God will forgive me if, oppressed by you in this wise, I do not cease from paying Him that duty which in my heart will be permitted. But you will give a very ill example to other princes of Christendom of employing towards their subjects and relatives the same harshness which you mete out to me, a sovereign queen and your nearest relative, as I am and shall be in spite of my enemies so long as I live.

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1. Special Methods in History. McMurry. $1.35. The Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd., Toronto.
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